

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 7, 1879.

The Week.

THE *Herald*, which may always be relied upon to do something to relieve the monotony of the summer, has hit this year upon the ingenious device of publishing a series of editorials urging upon Mr. Tilden the necessity of withdrawing from public life. Mr. Tilden must see, the *Herald* thinks, that he is a very serious impediment in the way of "harmony" in his party. The next Presidential election cannot be carried without the State of New York, and yet the Democrats in New York are hopelessly divided into a Kelly ring and a Tilden ring, and the Republicans have an excellent chance of carrying the State. To restore harmony, to bring about peace and calm, the only means is the retirement of Mr. Tilden from political life. What is distracting the Democrats is his candidacy; with him out of the way they could easily unite upon a good candidate with a fair hope of electing him. The *Herald* has accordingly drawn up a dignified letter of resignation, which it urges Mr. Tilden to sign. As yet, however, the suggestion has not been acted upon, mainly, we suppose, because Mr. Tilden does not consider himself really in public life. His view of the situation, as we understand it, is that he is simply a private citizen residing at 15 Gramercy Park (one of the most sequestered parks of the city), having no connection with politics in any way, and attending to his private concerns; that the people are justly indignant that his election in 1876 was rendered null and void by the fraudulent decision of an unconstitutional commission, and that the people will never "condone fraud." Under these circumstances what is the old gentleman to retire from? The *Commercial Advertiser*, in its ribald way, says that the only farewell address that will ever be issued in Mr. Tilden's case, will be in the obituary columns of the daily newspapers, accompanied by the usual notice of a funeral from 15 Gramercy Park.

It would be difficult to overestimate the importance of the election this autumn in this State in its bearing upon the Presidential contest of next year. If the Republicans carry the State the Conklingites, who still completely control the local machine, will go into the Republican convention with the whole weight of this State behind them, which Conkling cannot be said to have had in 1876 at Cincinnati. On the other hand, if the Democrats elect a Tilden Democrat, like the present Governor, even by a small majority, the "mortgage" which Tilden is supposed to have upon his party will be in a fair way of being speedily foreclosed. But if the Kelly forces obtain a victory and defeat the Tilden nomination, there is no saying who will secure the Democratic nomination; in all probability it will fall to the hands of some Western inflationist. All this makes the nominations of this year of exceptional importance; and it is a curious proof how little real popular interest is felt in politics as they are now managed in both the parties, and how little popular expectation there is of a change for the better through the victory of one or other of the factions, that the struggle excites little or no attention except among professional politicians and in the party press.

Among the Republicans there are absolutely no signs of movement in the Reform wing, composed of the anti-custom-house Republicans and those who, in general, think better of their party, as reflected in the editorials of *Harper's Weekly*, than as it appears in the life and conversation of Conkling or "Johnny" Davenport; and the result of this apathy is that it is now generally conceded that Mr. A. B. Cornell, whose nomination this wing prevented when it was last pressed, will this year be nominated without any real difficulty. Among the Democrats the situation is very different. Kelly has announced in a newspaper interview that

Tammany will not support Mr. Robinson under any circumstances. The reason for this is that Robinson is a mere "tool" of Tilden's, is "haughty," "domineering," "overbearing," and means to rule the party or ruin it. Mr. Robinson has also been interviewed, and says that he is a candidate for renomination. Should Tammany bolt the regular nomination Mr. Robinson could hardly be elected; but it is extremely improbable that anything like the whole Tammany vote could be induced to follow Kelly in such a revolt. A great deal will depend upon the management of the State Democratic Convention, and that again to a great extent upon the temporary organization. This is in the hands of the State Committee, which last year was in Kelly's interest, but of which enough members to give the control are said to have been since converted to the other side.

When the New York *Times* published its census of public sentiment in regard to Grant's renomination, in spite of its disclaimer of any sympathy with the verdict it was generally regarded as having rather wilfully given this acceleration to the Grant "boom." Since that time its course has been remarkable for undisguised antipathy to Secretary Sherman's Presidential aspirations and prospects, as when it allowed its Washington correspondent to accuse him of "fixing," by Treasury patronage, the Southern delegates to the next Republican convention. Accordingly, its giving up seven columns of Monday's issue to a flattering account of Mr. Charles Francis Adams in his library at Quincy, had all the appearance of an attempt to start an Adams boom. There could have been no mistake about it six months later, but the enterprise is probably to be set down to the exigencies of the dull season, and not to any spirit of propagandism. The same explanation doubtless holds good for the protracted rehearsal of Tilden's frauds in the last election; but this had the farther advantage of eliciting complimentary notices from the country press, the reprinting of which in the *Times* itself ensured an unlimited supply of padding.

The Kentucky election on Monday resulted in the election of Dr. Blackburn, the Democratic candidate, of course, but by a majority about forty per cent. smaller than that of McCreary four years ago. The Republicans gained several members of the Legislature, among others a successor to the Speaker of the last House of Representatives. There was a call for a Constitutional Convention voted on, but it failed to receive a majority, and at this writing it is doubtful if a majority of the voters of the State took the trouble to go to the polls. Blackburn's reduced majority is perhaps due not so much to unusual Republican activity as to his personal objectionableness. That, according to all accounts, was great; and his election is the reverse of creditable to the State. During the campaign repeated enquiries as to his identity with the Blackburn infamous for his connection with the plot to introduce yellow fever into the Northern States during the war, were left unanswered by himself and his friends. The Cincinnati *Gazette* made a point of repeating this question daily and in every conceivable form, but was only able to elicit from the *Courier-Journal* a counter interrogation as to certain misdeeds of one Richard Smith; other journals made the charge distinctly—except notably the Cincinnati *Commercial*, which would doubtless prefer anything to interference with a sensation of the *Gazette*. If it is true—and, we repeat, though constantly made it was never denied—it is curious that Dr. Blackburn should have owed his nomination to his heroism and self-sacrifice in treating yellow-fever patients last year. In this event yellow fever may be said to be his "specialty," and to possess attractions for him which he cannot withstand, but is forced to pass his life either in fighting his enemies with it or in rescuing his friends from it. At any rate it is to be hoped that the citizens of Kentucky, whose affairs he is now to administer, will manage to keep on the right side of a man of such proclivities.

The political riot at Yazoo City, of which full particulars have been published during the week, is an affair which concerns the people of Mississippi more nearly than it does any one else. A Colonel Dixon, much respected by every one in the county, and three other gentlemen announced themselves candidates for various local offices, subject not to the ratification of the forthcoming Democratic Convention, but "only to the choice of the people at the ballot-box," it being well understood that "the people" included the colored voters. This was looked upon as intolerable impudence by the regular organization, and Dixon and his friends, having made an active canvass, were finally "waited upon" by an armed mob of three hundred which insisted that they should leave the county or "take the consequences," "consequences" being, of course, the local euphemism for "death." Finally a compromise was arranged; Dixon withdrew his candidacy, and his party virtually disbanded. The case recalls the attempt last fall of General Davis, in the same State, to get negro support as a Greenback candidate; what he did get being threatening letters and a burning in effigy. Commenting on this, in opposition to those who thought it an occasion for Federal interference, we held up the duty of the Southern whites to display the courage of their convictions. The moral of the Dixon outrage is precisely the same. If the South is not to be for ever the slave of its lowest elements, the Dixons and the Davises must be ready to pay with their persons for the privilege of independent opinion and political action. The martyr stuff is what is needed, not withdrawing and disbanding under compulsion. What Northern constituency ever submitted to such "bulldozing," or appealed, as did the Independents of Yazoo County, to a judge for his advice in their distress? Judge Morris, it is only fair to say, bids them maintain their organization and proceed resolutely, and invokes the support of the prominent planters who participated in the Vicksburg Convention. He foresees as a consequence of failure to face the mob a revival of the exodus and the embittering of the "solid North." But it is high time Mississippi realized that exhibitions of white pusillanimity produce no effect at the North except disgust.

There has been no important change in the condition of Memphis, and the prospect seems to be that, while the daily average of new cases and deaths hitherto will probably be kept up through the rest of the hot weather, the epidemic is by no means likely to reach the last year's proportions. There have been ninety-seven new cases and twenty-five deaths during the week; the largest number of new cases being 18 on Tuesday, and of deaths 7 on Saturday, when all river traffic and railway travel ceased. Some trouble between the Committee of Safety and the colored people over the unwillingness of the latter to go into camp has not been in any degree serious. The National Board of Health has made a requisition for 500 tents upon the Secretary of War at the instance of Congressman Casey Young; and some of the papers are finding much fault with it for having done nothing else—save collect information. At New Orleans the Board of Health announces there is no danger and no likelihood of any but "sporadic" cases from time to time; of these there have been eight and two deaths. In this city the Commissioners are to appoint a special physician for the Quarantine hospital, where apparently one has been needed for some time.

The War Department has recently published a list of appointments from civil life to vacant second-lieutenancies in the regular Army, the only educational examination required of them being wholly unprofessional, and limited to the ordinary degree of scholarship which can be attained in most of our public schools. Appointments of civilians to the lowest grade of military rank is no innovation, having been common before the war of the rebellion to fill vacancies remaining after the graduates of the Military Academy had been exhausted. This plan added neither to the efficiency nor popularity of the service, and a section in the Army Appropriation Act of June 18, 1878, was intended both to secure the rights of actual soldiers and to im-

prove the personnel of the Army by providing that "hereafter all vacancies in the grade of second lieutenant shall be filled by appointment from the graduates of the Military Academy, so long as any such remain in service unassigned; and any vacancies thereafter remaining shall be filled by promotion of meritorious non-commissioned officers of the Army [recommended under the provisions of the next section of this Act]; *provided*, that all vacancies remaining, after exhausting the two classes named, may be filled by appointment of persons in civil life." The following section made elaborate provision for the selection, recommendation, examination, and report of enlisted men. The forms of this law have been observed with the astonishing result that so few non-commissioned officers have been appointed as to allow the selection of a large number of civilians. It is well known that the first or "orderly" sergeants of the companies of the line perform virtually all the official work of their companies beyond certain signatures and parade posturings. Most of them are certainly competent to instruct professionally any of the civilian youths who are to be appointed over them. Moreover, during several years past the difficulty of entering into business pursuits has induced many young men of perfectly good habits, and who probably can pass the slight educational examination required of the new appointees, to enlist, and learn the duties of soldiers. If neither of these classes are now fit for promotion the Army must be in a deplorable condition.

The present law, not having accomplished its object, might well be amended by striking out the proviso above quoted, and requiring that all vacancies in the lowest grade of the Army, after the graduates of West Point had been assigned, should be filled by meritorious non-commissioned officers of sufficient length of service to prevent another colorable evasion. When the commanding officers of the military subdivisions and the members of boards find that they cannot secure the appointment of their own friends and relations in civil life through the rejection of soldiers, there will be plenty of the latter who will pass the required examination, and a far higher standard will be gained for the companies, to which would be given the incentive of an honorable ambition. The alleged exclusion of the Army from politics, and its supposed freedom from all phases of favoritism, as markedly contrasted with the condition of the civil service, have furnished strong arguments to its supporters. Nothing is more likely to diminish both respect and gratitude than the knowledge that commissions are given on the same political and personal grounds as are clerkships throughout the country, and with no difference in the standard for examination except that the candidates for the temporary and less respected positions are required to possess higher qualifications. The memorandum published by the War Department, attached to the general order of announcement, is not fortunate. A significant proportion of the names announced are qualified as the sons or other relatives of present officers of the Army. If the mode of selection, so far as regards efficiency, is to be the same for officers of the regular Army and for the irregular army of clerks, the rule published, and to some extent observed, in the departments at Washington should be universally enforced, that two members of the same family should not be favored. Military commissions becoming, like all other executive appointments, the mere spoils of office, there should at least be a pretence of impartiality in distributing them.

The Attorney-General has given the Albany County Bank an opinion on the new six-per-cent. interest law which must be considered authoritative, at least until the questions involved are passed upon by the courts. He decides that the new law applies to State banks and repeals their right to charge seven per cent. From the concluding portion of his opinion it would seem that national banks must also lower their rate to six per cent., they having authority only to charge the rate established by law in the State in which they do business. The State banks were by a special act (L. 1870, ch. 163) empowered to charge seven per cent., but the

new act repeals in explicit terms all acts or parts of acts inconsistent with its provisions. The Legislature must in inserting this clause be assumed to have had in mind the State banks, and therefore the repealing clause amounts to a specific withdrawal of the right conferred by the act of 1870. As a matter of fact it is highly improbable that the Legislature had anything of that sort in its mind, for if it had it would probably have noticed that the act must also have the effect of cutting down the interest on the United States deposit fund, the income of which goes to the public schools. The deficiency in that fund arising from the change will, the Attorney-General says, have to be supplied by taxation. He thinks that the act does not affect the statutes against usury, which remain, *mutatis mutandis*, in force. On this point, however, there is clearly room for difference of opinion. It is rather a serious matter to have the law relating to interest on money left in this condition. Whether the Legislature had better leave the point in dispute to be settled by the courts, or try their clumsy hands at it once more, may perhaps be open to question.

Mayor Cooper last week made formal charges against Police Commissioner Wheeler in connection with the Bureau of Clothing and Equipment, and Monday afternoon was fixed for the hearing. The charges include misappropriation of funds, and retaining money due to tradesmen for supplies. Wheeler is a Republican Commissioner, whose term of office has expired, and who is holding over. His behavior in doing so is satisfactory to no one, even Mr. George Bliss being reported as remonstrating with him, and urging him to resign for the good of the party. He is not altogether fit for the place, being a bankrupt, and laboring under the suspicion of being "controlled" by the notorious Captain Williams, who is believed to have "a hold" upon him. Mr. Wheeler, however, evidently profited by the previous proceedings before the Mayor, and immediately retained counsel, who applied to Judge Van Brunt for a writ, which was granted and served upon the Mayor. This interesting document has been published in full by the morning papers, but as our space is limited we are only able to give an abstract of it. It is headed: "The people of the State of New York to Edward Cooper, Mayor of New York, greeting," and states that Wheeler has informed the court that he has been summoned before the Mayor to show cause why he should not be removed; that the Mayor has no jurisdiction in the premises, and that anything he does will be illegal and void; that, nevertheless, the said Cooper, contriving to oppress the said Wheeler, proposes to carry out his nefarious design. It goes on to command the audacious Cooper to desist until the third Monday (18th) of August, and further order of the court. The legal student will perceive that this document resembles the ancient writ of injunction introduced into England by the early chancellors, and brought to a high pitch of perfection in New York during the present century. It is, however, really what is known as a writ of prohibition, designed by the founders of the common law for the purpose of preventing encroachments of jurisdiction, and much in use in England in the time of Henry II. It has never before, we believe, been applied to prevent a mayor of a city from removing a police commissioner "under the charter." Mr. George Bliss, however, has told a reporter that it was once used to prevent Quimbo Appo, a Chinese murderer, from being tried. Its employment for such purposes is, therefore, corroborative of the jurist's favorite maxim, that "there is no wrong without a remedy."

Perhaps the most important event of the week was the decline in the rates for foreign exchange to very near the point at which gold can be imported. Sterling fell to within $\frac{1}{4}$ of a cent of this point, and bills on Paris were so low that an importation of \$200,000 double-eagles to New York was reported. As this decline comes before expected foreign demand for our breadstuffs has much more than begun, the prospect of getting a considerable amount of foreign gold before the year closes seems to be fairly good. Should the movement of specie to this country become large, it is a safe

calculation, however, that an effort will be made in the foreign financial markets to return American securities to us. The New York money market has shown symptoms of advancing during the week, but rates are not firmly higher than a week ago. It now appears that the Treasury during July paid out the eight-odd millions of legal-tender notes which made up the fund held for the redemption of fractional notes. This disbursement increased the ease of the money market and neutralized the temporary disturbances incident to the settlements of the bond contracts between the Treasury and the national banks. Money continues very cheap and abundant in London. Silver bullion there has ruled at $51\frac{1}{4}d.$ to $51\frac{1}{2}d.$ per ounce. At the close of the week the bullion value of the $412\frac{1}{2}$ -grain silver dollar was \$0.8623.

The foreign news of the week is unimportant. Parliament has been called upon to vote a new credit of \$15,000,000 for the expenses of the South African war, making the total cost of that enterprise so far \$22,500,000, to say nothing of the Prince Imperial. Cetewayo is still at large, but his military power seems utterly broken, and his territory will be divided among his brothers and other surrendered chiefs. The proceedings of the court-martial which sentenced Lieut. Carey to death have been quashed, ostensibly on account of informality. The French Chambers have been prorogued till November, and consequently the Ferry laws go over the heated term.

Judge Kelley's interview with Bismarck is described at length in a letter from himself to the *Philadelphia Times*. When the conversation had passed from the Chancellor's habits of work and sleeplessness to the pending Tariff Bill, Bismarck laid down the principle that each government should regard the welfare of its own people, and proceeded to show how much the agricultural interests of Germany stood in need of protection against the pauper labor of Hungary and Russia. He then complimented the United States on having, by means of its tariff, brought machinery and transportation to such a point (or, in other words, so pauperized its industry) that it "can send food even into Germany." The grounds of cordiality between the German and American statesmen being thus established, Judge Kelley made an "opportunity" of the last remark, and reminded his host that Germany's demonetization of silver had arrested the progress of the United States and restricted its trade; but as this could not fail to be gratifying intelligence to the great protectionist, he immediately added that a further consequence was the driving of bankrupt traders and unemployed artisans into agricultural pursuits, and that this, by reducing prices, had increased the competition with which Germany was contending. Bismarck thereupon frankly admitted that they had gone too far in this direction, said he had prohibited further sales of silver, and on being told that our Government was about to call a new bi-metallic convention, said his acceptance of the invitation would be immediate. He had, however, some curiosity to know what would happen if the other governments addressed did not respond favorably, and was assured of the Judge's hope that they would all refuse, based on his confident belief that "our people would, in less than two years, imperatively demand the full and unqualified remonetization of silver," and would, as silver mono-metallists, presently monopolize the trade of China, Japan, British India, Mexico, and Central and South America. These unhappy countries "could not sell their raw materials to, nor purchase their manufactured goods from, people who used a much more costly metal as a standard of payment." But Bismarck would not listen to this selfish programme: "In this matter you must not act alone; others must co-operate with you." The only other noticeable feature of the interview was Bismarck's "intense contempt for the arrogant pretenders who regard the doctrines of the British school of free-trade as absolute and indisputable propositions." "He characterized them as doctrinaires and closet-men," and said that "doctors, clergymen, and lawyers, but few of whom know anything of the details of public affairs, are generally on that side."

THE REVELATIONS BEFORE THE RAILROAD COMMITTEE.

THE question of railway power, and the methods and effects of its exercise, continues to force itself upon the public consideration. The Legislature of the State of New York was petitioned last February by the Chamber of Commerce of this city to investigate a number of charges against certain companies, which were set forth in the memorial with more distinctness than such charges usually are. The matters complained of were alleged to be fraught with much general harm, and to be especially detrimental to the interests of both the State and City of New York. Other important bodies also urged similar complaints, and the Legislature finally, by successive resolutions, created a committee of nine, with Mr. A. B. Hepburn as chairman, endowed it with ample powers, and charged it with very comprehensive duties. Its sittings commenced June 12, in this city, at the City Hall.

The New York Board of Trade joined the Chamber of Commerce in securing the services of Mr. Simon Sterne to act in their behalf before the committee. His opening speech did not exaggerate the gravity of the evils which gave birth to the investigation, nor the need both of more knowledge as to their extent and causes and as to the proper remedies. The public nature of the services rendered by railroads was shown, and their claim to exemption from public supervision and reasonable regulation easily disposed of, while the grosser and more palpable tyrannies engendered by their past license were forcibly depicted. Indeed, it is not easy to understand why the community should seriously doubt the question of the right to regulate. Nothing can be vainer than the hope that railways may, through pleas of business privacy, or others, long escape from whatever degree of enquiry may be found essential to throw light on their ways and management, and from the amplest and completest code of regulations which the public weal may seem to require. Indeed, the only real question worthy of consideration is the extent to which the community should and can safely call upon their government to proceed. There is a popular and justifiable distrust about confiding to government officials the supervision of large aggregations of capital, especially when their particular functions are affected by or may greatly affect the complicated and fluctuating movements of commerce. This many-sided question is worthy of our wisest thinking. But every fresh probing into railway practices only makes clearer the fact that some effective regulation is imperatively needed.

Mr. Samuel Goodman was the first witness who testified before the Committee. This gentleman is Assistant General Freight Agent of the New York Central & Hudson River Railroad Company, in special charge of its local freight business. He has been connected with that system of roads for twenty years. His duties, as defined by himself in his testimony, give him a certain and substantially unrestricted power over the commercial prosperity of all merchants, manufacturers, farmers, and other men of business living in the territory which that system serves—a power which in periods of commercial distress is quite sufficient to determine whether success or bankruptcy shall be the issue to men of limited means, no matter how prudent, thrifty, and industrious they may be. Such a power is much too great to be confided to any one, however competent, equitable, and upright he may be; but it has been wielded by Mr. Goodman. How fit he is to wield it, and how much credit he does to those who selected him, he has very fully revealed in the course of his evidence. A few extracts will illustrate his intelligence, and especially his knowledge of the business in which he is engaged, and in which he passes for an expert.

The examiner attempted to discover some rule or basis upon which the violent and sweeping changes in tariffs that had been confessed to were made. The witness protested that they really did rest on reason, and were not the offspring of mere whim, nor, when secret, of simple favoritism; but he nowhere produced any sound reason for them, nor, indeed, much semblance of any rule or guide for his actions; but he finally asserted with some positiveness that the first condition in determining rates was the cost of transporta-

tion. In response to persistent questioning, he was obliged to admit, however, that he did not know the difference in cost between transporting potatoes and flour by the barrel, nor how much it cost to haul freight, or to handle freight at termini, nor what effect grades had on such cost, nor the cost per mile per ton or train, nor in which direction the most empty cars ran, nor how much additional cost it would involve to move a car loaded instead of empty, and, in short, that he was not familiar with any of the elements which enter into the expense of freight carriage, though he also testified that he could get the information if he chose to ask for it. He could give no good reason for the present classification of freight, excepting some vague generalities respecting variations of value and bulk; but any attempt to define the relations between such variations and the allotment of goods to classes, simply exposed anew the density of his ignorance. However, he is probably not alone so far as classification is concerned. As it at present exists it is really a sort of untrimmed growth of years of custom, and is loaded down with the excrescences and absurdities which usually characterize such growths.

"Can you tell us," asked the examiner, "how much of the transportation expense is due to the handling of goods?"—"Not to such an extent as to give intelligent answers."

"Have you any guess upon the subject of (the cost of) haul?"—"No, sir; I have not the slightest idea."

"Does the ease with which an article may be handled at the termini determine the question whether it is to go into the first or fourth class?"—"It does to a certain extent."

After some explanatory questions and answers:

"Then the terminal charges do *not* enter into consideration at all in making this classification?"—"Not particularly at this time."

Certainly a frank acknowledgment of incompetency is better than unfounded pretension to skill; and for this reason Mr. Goodman is worthy of commendation. But there is something appalling in the fact that a great power over the well-being of vast communities should be lodged with one so grossly and wilfully and almost boastfully unfitted for its intelligent exercise.

The facts drawn out of him, in illustration of the practical administration of his department, were as numerous and instructive as the illustrations of his incapacity. The tariffs of charges, by which all his patrons were necessarily compelled to regulate their business, were in some cases two years old; some, two weeks. They had been issued with so little precision that the witness himself could not tell the exact day when even the most recent took effect. Between the various local stations there were absolutely no tariffs in print, nor were there any at non-competitive points. The bulk of such business is done under special rates made from day to day, and for each shipper as he needs to ship. "More than one-half of these special rates, and all the important ones, are made verbally, and in many cases under a pledge of secrecy." If Mr. Goodman thought potatoes worth one dollar per barrel, his tariff would perhaps be twenty cents; if he thought them worth but half a dollar, he would obligingly cut his rate to ten cents; but if one shipper should simply forward his potatoes as he would mail a letter, he would pay the twenty cents; while his neighbor who was astute enough to consult Mr. Goodman would get the same service done at one-half the cost. And here it should be remarked that Mr. Goodman never gives notice of tariff changes to any but those who choose to enquire of him. If a Western road lops off fifty per centum of the through-tariff to New York, Mr. Goodman's road meekly accepts the capricious decree, and he himself proceeds to consider how far it shall disturb his manuscript tariffs and verbal rates from Buffalo or from Utica. Sometimes Mr. Goodman thinks he will reduce, and sometimes he thinks he won't. When he reduces, the Utica man can ship, and possibly at a profit; when he decides the other way, the Utica man has nothing for it but to stop business or lose money. He has, however, the satisfaction of knowing that his Chicago rival is very cheaply served, and is doing a rushing trade; all the larger that Utica is for the time under the ban of Mr. Goodman's indifference or caprice.

The witness confessed that, while his regular tariff of charges from New York to Syracuse was thirty-seven, twenty-nine, twenty-

five, and eighteen cents per hundred pounds, according to class, he gave to special favorites in that city a rate of ten cents per hundred pounds on all classes; while from New York to Schenectady (130 miles less haul) the very lowest rate he would give to his dearest friends was fifteen cents per hundred pounds. It is only fair to say, however, that some Syracusans stood no higher in his good graces than the best of Schenectady. Of course the generality of shippers at each place paid the full tariff rates. Utica ranks about as highly in his favor as Syracuse, while Frankfort—poor little Frankfort—is not accorded so much as one single special rate; not a single man in Frankfort is pledged to secrecy. The happy result which is thereby achieved is that Frankfort ships nothing, and probably never will ship anything. Mr. Goodman will be thus spared much worry and rate-making annoyance. To win his highest regard, however, it is safest to dwell in Milwaukee. Residents there can under his benign auspices ship from Troy, 1,301 miles, at a lower cost than he will accord to shipments from Troy to Syracuse, 151 miles. Why he should shower smiles on Syracusans who ship from New York City, and frown on such as ship from the city of Troy, does not appear; and it is quite unlikely he could himself give any good reason for the difference. It transpired in the course of the evidence that if any recipient of a special rate was caught patronizing any other route, his rate would probably be withdrawn; and, as from most local points only special rates exist, he might easily find himself debarred from shipping at all. One of the few plausible grounds for discriminating rates between shippers which Mr. Goodman advanced was the relative quantities of traffic they offered for carriage; but when pressed he was obliged to admit that he kept no record of these respective amounts, and was, in fact, totally ignorant of the volume of traffic received from each patron, or whether the special rates really resulted in an increase of business. He had no records to show, and apparently no knowledge, whether the special rates he gave so lavishly yielded any profit, or whether they were not below the actual cost of the work.

Mr. James H. Rutter, who fills the responsible post of traffic manager on the same system of roads to which Mr. Goodman is attached, was a less interesting witness than the latter. His readiest and most frequent reason for inability to furnish much of the information asked for was "necessary unfamiliarity with details," his own duties being general in their nature. It was a convenient excuse, and much resorted to. It was quite evident he understood the value of not knowing too much. A competent traffic manager, such as he may probably be, would hardly fail to familiarize himself with all matters related to so important a feature of his jurisdiction as the drawing-room-car question, unless he had good reason to believe his investigations would not commend him to his superiors.

Mr. Royal C. Vilas, the general freight agent of the New York, Lake Erie, & Western Railway, is as well equipped, both by disposition and study, for the duties of his important post as Mr. Goodman for his. If the two companies should exchange these officers, it would be difficult to determine which had the best of it. We should like to speak of some of the extraordinary facts revealed by him, and notably of the "evening" scandal, but our space will not permit.

The Chamber of Commerce could not more effectually forward their purposes than to have a careful digest made of the points elicited in this testimony. In its present shape it is necessarily too diffuse and lacking in arrangement to be generally read or fully comprehended. The examination has been ably, and we think successfully, conducted, and the mass of ill-doing which it has brought and will yet bring to light before the sessions are closed, should be placed in the clearest possible way before the public judgment.

THE ECONOMIC REVOLUTION IN GERMANY.

MR. W. D. KELLEY'S visit to Germany has been most opportune. He was sure of a cordial reception as a representative of the Pennsylvania school of political economists, which is now in high

favor with the German Government and the German Diet; and he has actually had the honor of being referred to by a deputy in the Reichstag as a "leading American statesman," and of being quoted in elucidation of some abstruse question of finance. He has had an opportunity to meet Professor Dühring, the translator and expositor of Carey; to hear the doctrines, though of course not the methods, of the Pittsburgh rioters taught in the classes of the first university of the land; to listen to the eloquence of Von Kardorff, his own German counterpart; to receive from Prince Bismarck economical opinions by the side of which his own are conservative and almost orthodox; and, what to a conscientious protectionist must have been the highest gratification of all, to witness the process of making an imperial law which puts a duty of seventy five cents per hundredweight on petroleum, and corresponding burdens upon canned meats, vegetables, and fruits, machines, grain, and nearly everything else which America has hitherto exported free, or practically free, into Germany. The duty on petroleum is, indeed, a duty for revenue, since not even Herr von Varnbüler has yet proposed to sink oil-wells in the Fatherland, but the other articles are taxed distinctly and avowedly in the interest of "home industry"; and, as the measure is sure to ruin several young but flourishing branches of American export trade with Germany, there was an ironical propriety in the presence of a Pennsylvania protectionist to witness the triumph of the great cause.

The completeness of the protectionist victory is not more striking than the ease and rapidity with which it was effected. There had, indeed, been hints and signs for a year or more that Bismarck was dissatisfied with the tariff system, and sooner or later would begin to tamper with it. Herr von Kardorff in the Diet, and one or two of his servants in the press, kept up a busy agitation against free-trade; but apparently on their own responsibility, and without open encouragement from the Chancellor. His own debut in the new character was not made until last Christmas. Before that no general canvass of the country had taken place; the issue had not been submitted to the people, who at the last election had hardly a suspicion of what was coming; and even the *personnel* of the present Diet is not essentially different from that of earlier ones, from which free-trade has for years received such a consistent and resolute support. And yet in six short months the revolution—for it is nothing else—has been accomplished. It would be difficult to find a parallel to such recklessness even in the history of American politics. Compared with it the Bland Bill was a piece of prudent legislation. The "silver question" had at least entered, in a vague way, into the previous campaign; in Germany the protectionist scheme was carefully concealed from the electors. In this country the Government exercised a restraining and salutary check upon the wild purposes of the legislature; in Germany the Government has favored and encouraged the extremists even in the amendment of its own measure. And in the United States the silver triumph was at least mitigated by its inability to produce immediate harm; while the complete overthrow of the historical commercial policy of Germany will unsettle all values, disturb all industries, increase all prices, notably of food, and prepare the way for inevitable social convulsions. But these points of difference—in the end chiefly differences of degree—between the two "reforms" are balanced by points of very striking resemblance, which suggest to the observer certain serious and disagreeable reflections. The enumeration of some of these will at the same time characterize the method of Bismarck's performance.

In the first place, the protective tariff, like the Silver Bill, is a measure of class legislation, and was defended by the basest appeals to class interest and prejudice. The peasant and the artisan were arrayed against the trader; the debtors against the creditors; real estate against funded capital; Christians against Jews; and other insidious and incendiary distinctions were freely employed by the reformers. Prince Bismarck himself did not disdain such tactics; and on one occasion in particular—the debate on the corn duties—he harangued the House in the best style of an American Granger. With a full sense of his responsibility he took up and made his own

all the selfish complaints of the great proprietors. Their taxes were unduly high; foreign grain was ruining them; their lands were covered with mortgages; in short, relief must come if the agricultural industry of the country was to be saved! These mischievous sophisms did their work. The heavy duties which the Government first proposed were afterward doubled by the Diet with the assent of Prince Bismarck, and the consumers will now pay their contribution to the rescue of the squires and landlords of Eastern Prussia.

Another instructive point in the comparison is the fanatical impetuosity of the protectionist majority. Becoming early conscious of their power, they became at the same time utterly deaf to the voice either of reason or of caution, cut debate off impatiently on many occasions, treated the subject as belonging exclusively to themselves, and curtly repulsed almost every suggestion made by members of the minority. In the House of Representatives at Washington the majority can also be tyrannical, but only under certain well-defined conditions. There are various inflexible rules which, under English parliamentary law, must be observed, and which are, on the whole, regarded with a perhaps technical but not unchivalrous respect. In Germany there is nothing of the sort. A bare majority can stifle discussion at any time by a so-called *Schluss-Antrag*, or motion to close debate; and even during debate the Speaker can control affairs almost arbitrarily through his power of recognizing such deputies as he chooses out of those who have announced in writing their desire to speak. Herr von Forekenbeck, so long as he was President of the Diet, was scrupulously impartial in the exercise of his discretion. But Herr von Seydewitz, whose personal intentions are doubtless no less honorable, was nevertheless elected exclusively as a partisan speaker, and, having besides a majority which was determined to avenge itself for years of ignoble impotence, has found himself more than once in the disagreeable necessity of enforcing resolutions contrary to every sentiment of justice. To make use of the observation which the late John Stuart Mill once applied to another question, the more the protectionists became convinced of their inability to meet the free-traders' argument the more certain they became that their cause had a natural and sentimental strength above and beyond all argument. Their parliamentary intolerance was only one consequence of this singular delusion.

The third tendency which this unfortunate affair reveals is in many respects the most deplorable of all. We mean the open contempt which has been displayed for the authority not only of specialists, but of educated and thinking men in general. The "practical men" controlled the situation. This interpretation of the case is not our own, and is not ironical as might be supposed, but is a great favorite of the Government press and the Government speakers, and did splendid service during the debates. Now, by a singular coincidence, the "practical men" were all in favor of the protectionist scheme. One of them, perhaps the most "practical" of all, was Herr Stumm, a great iron manufacturer; and the appearance of this deputy as the leader of the iron men, speaking and voting under the applause of the Government, for the highest possible protective duties in favor of his own wares, was one of the most shameless exhibitions that the floor of a legislative body can afford. The rich country squires at the extreme Right are also "practical men," and they carried the grain duties against the "theorists," the "book-men," the "literary fellers" of the Left. That Germany has always had her Camerons, Murphys, and Joneses is, of course, no secret, but this is probably the first time that they ever won so cynical and complete a victory over the culture and intellect of the country.

One of the protectionist speakers paid the Chancellor an indifferent compliment when he said that instead of starting the movement he simply saw it coming and put himself at the head of it. This was an absurd error. The only movement up to the time of Prince Bismarck's pronunciamiento last December had been a somewhat languid and modest one, supported by the Liberals rather than the Conservatives, in favor of the introduction of imperial

taxes, and thereby the creation of an imperial revenue, to take the place of the matriculatory contributions of the states. It was intended to be almost exclusively a fiscal reform. It was a centralizing plan, since it was to put the Treasury on an independent footing, whereas now it is compelled, to use Prince Bismarck's phrase, to beg for its funds from state to state. These imperial taxes were practically obliged to be indirect; and it was proposed to take import duties on tea, coffee, tobacco, and so forth, and on the latter an excise rate. With the outlines of such a scheme the Liberals were satisfied. But they insisted that after the abolition of the matriculatory contributions, which were voted by the Diet from year to year, while the proposed indirect taxes were to be permanent, some other arrangement ought to be made securing Parliament's control of the purse. This seems a modest demand, but it is proved to have a momentous importance, for parliamentary control of the purse was just what Bismarck wished to abolish; and the first step being to make the revenues independent, he applied himself to that task with characteristic energy, and, in so far as his relations to parties were concerned, with characteristic unscrupulousness. The fact that the National Liberals had been his chief allies for a decade counted for nothing as soon as they ceased blindly to register his decrees. He turned from them to the Clericals and extreme Conservatives as easily as he would exchange one coat for another. But the Clericals, coming from manufacturing districts, are mostly protectionists, and the rural Conservatives were readily made such by the tempting offer of the grain duties, which at first had seemed incredible; and in this way the "movement" was called into life. Duties for revenue and duties for protection were tacked together in such a form that the Liberals who favored the former were compelled to accept the latter, and the Clericals who favored the latter were compelled to accept the former. The only question was, which faction should be taken and which rejected; and this depended on the so-called guaranties. The Liberals demanded security for the privileges of parliament; the Clericals, security for the rights of the states—in other words, for the federal principle. But the federal principle being also dear to the reactionists, they hastened to accept the proposition of the Centre; and the constitutional guaranties of the Liberals being hateful to Bismarck, he consecrated the rival league, and then the work was done. Protection was triumphantly carried by a two-thirds vote. For the first time since 1866 the National Liberals found themselves in the minority and isolated from the Government, and from this position they are not likely soon to escape.

THREE DEATHS.

LONDON, July 22.

ENGLISH society has been disturbed just now by some painful and touching incidents. First, I must note the death and solemn burial in Westminster Abbey of Lord Lawrence. As you know, he was the last of Indian statesmen who crowned a purely Indian career by filling the highest post in the government of that great dependency. Practically, he saved India during the Mutiny, and his administration of it as viceroy was directed towards the consolidation of its resources, and the limitation of those projects of territorial extension which found favor with some governors before and after him, whose knowledge of India was picked up during their term of office. Mr. Bright in one of his late speeches describes his coming across a newly-nominated governor-general in a railway carriage, and finding him armed with a series of volumes. "I will wager," said Mr. Bright, "that that is Mill's 'History of British India.'" So it turned out to be. That is the basis of knowledge which most governor-generals endeavor to lay before setting out, and on it the advisers into whose hands they fall endeavor to build a superstructure of aggressive and ambitious plans. The late Lord Lawrence's varied experience of nearly every department of Indian administration qualified him to be his own adviser, and to control the large projects of military men and political residents ambitious of action and distinction. The phrase of "masterly inactivity," which was applied to his system, marks its essential character. During the last year of his life his strenuous opposition to the Indian policy of Lord Lytton, and especially his acceptance of the chairmanship of the Afghan Committee,

made him the centre of heated and angry controversy. How heated and angry that controversy was, and into what regions it penetrated, one fact sufficiently discloses. It is well known to all readers of the newspapers that one of the special functions which the Queen has assumed to herself since her widowhood has been that of consoler-general to all persons of a certain degree of political or personal distinction, men or women, similarly afflicted. Her Majesty never fails to administer a telegram of condolence or sympathy to a bereaved husband or wife in the official or high social classes. Until within a few days no message of this kind had been sent to the widow of the great Indian statesman who for a term ruled India in her name, and to whom more than any one else the fact is due that the Indian Empire was not lost to the Queen in the Mutiny.

The political partisanship which has penetrated into the Court, and the personal likings and dislikings which have been indulged and freely displayed, have passed the limits of that wise restraint observed during the earlier years of her Majesty's reign. Some of the Queen's most illustrious ministers have experienced it; but hitherto the resentment and animosity have not passed the bounds of the grave. The contrast which has distinguished the later years of the Queen's reign—the last half-dozen years of it, in fact—from the seven-and-thirty years which preceded, is often exaggerated in popular talk, but it is real. The explanation of it is easy. The theoretic doctrine of the position of the Queen in the Government which the Prince Consort derived from his German training, and which were embodied in the maxims and counsels of Baron Stockmar, are in close harmony with those views of personal rule which form the political philosophy of Lord Beaconsfield. For the first time in her reign the Queen has a Prime Minister whose disposition is to encourage instead of checking the ideas of monarchical authority which are natural to every crowned head—and this not entirely from servility or as a matter of personal management, but from real sympathy. The practical good sense of the Prince Consort, which restrained his action through the Queen far within the limits of his theory, has not transmitted itself to any adviser equally near the throne. During the greater part of her reign the Queen was surrounded by statesmen older than herself, on whose wisdom and experience she relied. Sir Robert Peel and the Duke of Wellington, Lord Melbourne and Lord Russell, Lord Lansdowne, Lord Aberdeen, and the late Lord Derby had the authority of age and of services to give weight to their counsels and remonstrances. Even they, however, could scarcely say, "*Ego et regina mea.*" They had to reckon with the distinct personal views and wishes of the Queen and to make large concessions to them, as the 'Memoirs of the Prince Consort,' perhaps prematurely, shows. Now, however, the Queen is surrounded by men who are younger in years or in political life than herself, and who by policy or temperament, or through conscious inexperience, rather follow than lead. During the whole of the Queen's reign, as during that of her predecessors, the personal power of the sovereign has been a larger element in constitutional monarchy than the majority of her people have supposed. It is only, however, within the last few years that the working of the machine has been deliberately laid bare to the public view, the wheels within wheels disclosed, and the principle of the mechanism acknowledged. It may be doubted whether this candor is expedient. With the return of the Liberal party to power, whenever that may take place, and certainly with a new reign, the adoption of the constitutional system as it was believed to be is morally inevitable. The fact that English monarchy was less limited than it was fancied will probably lead to further limitation.

The merely formal representation of the Queen and the Prince of Wales at Lord Lawrence's funeral is in striking contrast with the presence of both, and of other members of the royal family, at the funeral of the late Prince Louis Napoleon, at Chiselhurst. Personal feelings no doubt prompted the display. The unhappy circumstances of the poor boy's death, the relations of intimacy which he had sustained with our own princes, the natural compassion of a reigning for an exiled sovereign, and of an actual for a dispossessed heir-apparent, go for a good deal in matters of this kind. It must be remembered, too, that no official civilities have been wanting towards the French Republic. There was proper recognition of M. Grévy during the Queen's passage this year through Paris. The Prince of Wales breakfasted with M. Gambetta during the Exhibition of 1878, and is said to have left upon the present President of the Chamber the impression that he would make a very good sort of a king for England. Still, there can be no doubt that political did mingle with personal feeling in the display at Chiselhurst. In the struggle which followed the 24th of May the sympathy of courtiers and

of the Court was notoriously with Marshal MacMahon and the Duc de Broglie. A Bonapartist or Orleanist restoration was held to be the best thing for France. The contrast between constitutional monarchy, as in England, and a Napoleonic empire is one which flatters our sense of superior capacity for parliamentary rule. The spectacle of a peaceful republic, industrious and orderly, at our very doors, excites a certain disquietude in courtly circles which is not of course openly avowed, which is scarcely self-acknowledged, but which is not the less real. It had a good deal to do with the exaggerated manifestations which followed on the news of Prince Louis Napoleon's death, and the reception of his body in England. It prompts the injudicious suggestion which has been made, and to which Dean Stanley has given a hasty assent, to the erection of a memorial to the Prince in Westminster Abbey. This proposal, however, seems to have outrun the public sentiment; numerous protests have been made and are being made against it, and there is some likelihood that it will not be persisted in. The Dean of Westminster is an excellent man, who, if he is somewhat spoiled by being a courtier, yet is a redeeming influence in the Court. If some virtue goes out of him, it goes into it. The suggestion with which he has complied came from the Prince of Wales, and had the sympathy of the Queen, and this was enough to make it welcome to him. But this was not all. The Dean takes a peculiar view of the Abbey of which he is the guardian. He regards it as a sort of historic museum, of which he is the curator, and for the time being the possessor. He is as eager to add to his collection as a coleopterist or a numismatist is to acquire a rare beetle or a scarce coin. The Dean is a great body-snatcher. Scarcely a man of high eminence dies whose remains Dr. Stanley does not strive to acquire for the Abbey; and if they are not to be had, a monument or bust to supply the place. The Dean has all the eagerness of an enthusiastic collector, and, as is the habit of collectors, he is sometimes more impressed with the rarity than the worth of the object. The undesirability of offending the sensibilities of the French Republic, and the inconvenience of opening a sort of Bonapartist chapel in Westminster Abbey, will probably lead to a reconsideration of the project and its abandonment. It is undesirable that we should have annual pilgrimages, headed by M. Paul de Cassagnac, to England.

The death of the lady whose pleasure it was to be known, from the title of the second of her four husbands, as Frances Countess Waldegrave, removes a conspicuous figure from English society. The daughter of John Braham, the vocalist, whose real name was Abraham, her life was a succession of social conquests. It illustrates strikingly the doctrine of the closing essay in George Eliot's last volume. Theophrastus Such might have appealed to her career and position as a proof of the intellectual power of the Jews, and their capacity of becoming masters in the communities in which but lately they were despised and proscribed outlaws. In politics, in finance, in journalism, in society, the Jews are playing the principal parts. A Jew is Prime Minister; a Jewish house controls in a great degree the political finance of the country; a family of Jews are the proprietors and managers of the most largely circulated and, for its own purposes, the most skilfully conducted newspaper in England, or perhaps in the world; a Jewish girl, the daughter of a public ballad-singer, became a sort of mistress of society, rebuffing or admitting to her favor some of the haughtiest and most squeamish members of our old nobility. Lady Waldegrave's receptions in Carlton House gardens and her hospitalities at Strawberry Hill have often been described. The marriage of a niece of Horace Walpole's with the Lord Waldegrave who was "governor" of George III. when Prince of Wales, and afterwards Prime Minister of George II., brought the celebrated Twickenham house into the family of the late Lady Waldegrave's first and second husbands. With all their property left away from their own family, to whom nothing has descended but a poverty-stricken earldom, it became hers in full possession. The report is that by her will it will return to the family after the death of her present husband, Lord Carlisle, who, as Mr. Chichester Fortescue, was a member of Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet, and had a large share in the preparation and carrying out of the great Irish measures of that Government. Bold and adventurous, generous, frank, and kindly, a mistress of the arts of management, Lady Waldegrave's career, if ever it be fully recorded, will be as strange and as piquant a story as the political romance of Lord Beaconsfield's life. Though belonging to opposite sides in politics, their sympathy was strong, and Lord Beaconsfield was a frequent guest at Strawberry Hill. Indeed, the way in which the Jews hold together and play into each other's hands while playing on society is remarkable. Minister, financier, and journalist understand each other and work together.

Correspondence.

COST OF THE MASSACHUSETTS RAILROAD COMMISSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : In your comments on the tenth annual report of the Massachusetts Railroad Commission, in the "Notes" of your issue of the 24th inst., you say "the expense of this excellent work for a whole year was less than \$2,500." You here fall into the very natural error of mistaking the statement of the purely office expenses of the Board, as printed on page 435 of the report, for its entire cost. If put forth with the authority of the *Nation*, this might convey a wholly erroneous impression to legislators in other States preparing to organize similar commissions.

Massachusetts has always been what would be considered liberal, judged by prevailing standards, in the provision made for its Railroad Commission. Perhaps the fact that the cost of the Board was met by the assessment of a special tax on the railroad corporations has had something to do with this liberality ; but, in any event, the liberality has had a good deal to do with the somewhat conspicuous success of the Commission. Indeed, the salary attached to the chairmanship of that Board (\$4,000) was almost the only salary in the State within the reach of the last Legislature which underwent no reduction at its hands. During the ten years since its organization the average annual cost of the Commission has been a little over \$16,000 a year. Last year its cost was a little less than \$20,000, instead of \$2,500, as stated by you. G.

BOSTON, July 29, 1879.

THE LETELLIER CASE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : In your editorial on "The Letellier Case" you say : "There can be no doubt of the wisdom of the Beaconsfield Government's refusal to interfere : anything other would have irritated Canada as, in the opinion of less radical judges than Mr. Goldwin Smith, it would have been foolish to irritate her."

I cannot understand why my name should be thus introduced. I have expressed no opinion in favor of interference with colonial self-government, in the Letellier case or in any case ; quite the reverse.

The main feature of the case, in its recent aspect, and that which determined my opinion and the opinion of many others, Conservatives as well as Liberals, is not noticed in your editorial. The charge against Lieut.-Governor Letellier was stale and had been dealt with in a former Parliament. I have no doubt that he did very wrong in turning out his Conservative Ministry, and at the time I was in favor of his removal. But he was then sustained both by the Dominion House of Commons, which voted down the resolution censuring him, and by the people of his Province ; and it seemed an equivocal proceeding, and a sinister use of a party victory, to revive the matter in the new Parliament and put the accused person on his trial a second time. This view can hardly be described as "radical" ; at least, it did not commend itself to either of the extreme parties.

The Conservative Premier, Sir John Macdonald, was so far from making the case "a leading question," that he evidently wished to let it alone, and himself refrained from moving the resolution of censure in the new Parliament, though he could not control the impetuosity of some of his French supporters.

You say that "the Letellier case, even more than the question of protection, influenced the last general election in Canada." But at the last general election the question was hardly before the country. It was generally deemed to have been settled in the late Parliament, and few of us expected that it would be revived. I will venture to say that it did not turn a vote in any province but Quebec. Even in Quebec, the people who had sustained Lieutenant-Governor Letellier, a member of the Free-Trade party, at the local election and on the provincial question, gave a large majority in favor of the Protectionist leader at the general election.

The last general election turned on the tariff. If there was anything else that materially contributed to the Conservative victory, it was the personal ascendancy of the leader, Sir John Macdonald, whose delinquencies had been forgotten and whose popularity had revived.

Yours faithfully,

GOLDWIN SMITH.

TORONTO, August 2.

WHAT THE SILVER DOLLAR IS WORTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : Almost every American one meets asserts that the silver dollar, which he calls the standard, coined in 1878, is *worth* as much as the greenback. It is not so here, but the American invariably replies that it is so in New York. He says that the United States Treasury will redeem all the silver standard dollars presented to it in gold, and therefore it is bound to be worth as much as the greenback. I see you weekly give the value of the silver dollar, which is generally over 87 cents. Is this what the silver dollar is *worth* ? and what is the *worth* of the greenback ? Americans contend that as much can be bought for a silver dollar as for a greenback. Does this establish the worth of the *silver dollar* ? Americans say that it does : I venture to say that it does not, and I assert that even did the Treasury redeem in gold what of standard dollars might be presented, that would not establish the worth of the dollar. Which is right ? A word of explanation will be esteemed a favor, not alone by D. B.

TORONTO, ONT., July 19, 1879.

[The above is answered by the following statement : What is called the standard silver dollar contains 412½ grains of silver, 900 fine. The legal-tender value of this dollar is 100 cents ; the bullion value is whatever 412½ grains of silver bullion is worth, which as we write is \$0.8623 ; the market value, or the value at which the coins can be sold in quantities, is now about 99%. As yet there are not enough of these standard silver dollars outside of the Treasury to force their circulation at their bullion value ; so soon as there are enough out, then these coins will pass only at their bullion value, and the difference between that and the bullion value of the gold dollar, which is 100 cents, will be represented either by a premium on gold—as during suspension, when the only other legal tender consisted of United States notes—or a discount on silver. The legal-tender notes are promises to pay coin dollars, either gold or silver ; and as they can be discharged by paying silver dollars they will always rule at the market value of the silver dollars ; as before said, this market value is now nearly the same as the legal-tender value, for the reason that there are not enough of these dollars in circulation to bring their market value down to their bullion value. Silver dollars are not redeemable with gold dollars. Outside of the domain of the United States all coins of the United States are taken at their bullion value, being bought in quantities by the ounce ; accordingly, 412½-grain silver dollars are taken at say 87 cents, and gold dollars at 100 cents. As gold dollars can yet be obtained for legal-tender notes, and as the market value of the silver dollar is about 100 cents, the notes rule at par with gold, less the cost of collecting the coin on them. We publish from time to time the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar to inform our readers what these dollars and all coin obligations not specifically payable in gold would rule at if there were a sufficient supply of these dollars in circulation to force them to circulate as the gold dollars now do, at their bullion value. It is only a question of time, provided existing legislation is unrepealed, when the silver dollars will rule at their bullion value, and when the par of all coin obligations not payable in gold will be the gold value of 412½ grains of silver bullion 900 fine.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO. have in preparation 'Memoirs of Henry J. Armit Brown,' together with four historical orations, edited by Prof. J. M. Hoppin, of Yale College. The edition will be limited to the number of subscribers at \$2.50 per copy.—Nos. 4-6 (vol. xi.) of the Bulletin of the Essex Institute contains valuable "Notes on the Native and extensively introduced Woody Plants of Essex County, Mass.," by Mr. John Robinson. They form in effect a manual of reference to the specimens in the Botanical Department of the Peabody Academy of Science, of which a heliotype view showing the arrangement adorns the Bulletin.—Mr. Warren Upham begins in the *American Naturalist* for August a series of papers on the "Formation of Cape Cod," which will interest all the coast dwellers from Provincetown to Perth Amboy. In the

same number Mr. Albert S. Gatschet records his investigation concerning adjectives of color in Indian languages on this continent. It has a decided scientific importance.—Judge Elisha R. Potter's "Memoir concerning the French Settlements and French Settlers in the Colony of Rhode Island," No. 5 of Mr. Rider's R. I. Historical Tracts, relates primarily to the Huguenot colony on the site of the present East Greenwich, but has for a scarcely subordinate object the unmasking of the Puritans. The author's manner does not always suggest impartiality, nor indeed is the whole case presented; but the residuum of ugly facts is considerable. The French genealogical notices are a useful contribution to the meagre Rhode Island stock of family histories.—The July Bulletin of the Boston Public Library contains a list of local histories with genealogical matter; Part V. of the History of Mental Philosophy; and a bibliography of the Renaissance in France and Italy. There is also a list of American newspapers of the last century possessed by the Library, with indications of their incompleteness. The number is considerable (35). The Twenty-seventh Annual Report of the Library is chiefly concerned with the growing inadequacy of accommodations, and with the practicability of co-operating with the teachers of the public schools in an attempt to direct the reading of the pupils. No recent Yankee notion is better worth trying.—The August number of the *Magazine of American History* is in a sort a continuation of the February number, being given up almost entirely to Washingtoniana. Mr. Parton has a characteristic paper on "The Traditional and Real Washington"; an account of Washington's headquarters at Preakness, N. J., accompanies a view of the house; and several letters of Washington's are printed, nineteen for the first time.—We have received from the Old Colony Historical Society, Taunton, Mass., its first collective publication, consisting of the papers read at its meetings during the year 1878. The Society is twenty-five years old, and contemplates publishing its earlier collections as soon as it is able. A sketch of its history introduces the present volume.—The Buffalo Historical Society also began its publications with the present year, the third number having appeared in March. In No. 1 the origin of the name of the city is discussed.—Part 21 of Spruner's "Historical Atlas" (B. Westermann & Co.) contains maps of Europe in the middle of the fourteenth century; Italy from 1137 to 1302; the Slavic kingdom of Poland, etc., 1386-1480; and Hungary from the beginning of the thirteenth century to the battle of Mohács. There are, as usual, numerous side maps.—In the *Rassegna Settimanale* for July 13 we find a letter from V. Cesati introducing one from the poet Longfellow in reply to the enquiry why the latter had entitled his poem "Excelsior" and not "Excelsius." His explanation is "that the device on the banner is not to be interpreted 'ascende superius,' but 'scopus meus excelsior est.'" This letter bears date of Feb. 5, 1874.

—Capt. George E. Belknap, U.S.N., in a second article on deep-sea soundings, published in the *United Service* for July, has brought out some of the results of the *Tuscarora's* work in the Pacific Ocean which should not be overlooked while the brilliant record of the *Challenger* is engaging attention. The *Tuscarora* was equipped for the work of deep-sea sounding under Captain Belknap, at Mare Island, in the bay of San Francisco, during the summer of 1873, and, after some preliminary reconnoissances, sailed from Cape Flattery September 17, and began sounding on a line which was to extend to Yokohama, by the way of the Aleutian Islands. After a run of eleven hundred miles the ship came back to Puget's Sound, the deepest of the twenty-five casts which were made being in 2,534 fathoms. While returning to San Francisco eighty-three soundings were made "off-and-on," to ascertain the true continental outline. The submerged Pacific coast was found to be very abrupt in its descent, and a run of seventy miles would sometimes disclose a fall of two and a quarter miles (2,000 fathoms). Later in the year a continuance of soundings south to San Diego, Cal., revealed the same outline. Should the waters retreat, says Belknap, the continent would appear "buttressed and bastioned like an immense fortress." The *Tuscarora* sailed again, January 6, 1874, to run a line across the Central North Pacific, *via* the Hawaiian and Bonin groups. Between San Diego and Honolulu sixty-two casts were made, ranging from 71 to 3,054 fathoms. From these soundings Belknap estimated the mean depth of this part of the Pacific at 2,562 fathoms, confirming the Coast Survey estimates based upon the rate of tidal movements. Passing westward to the Bonin islands, it was found that the contour of the ocean-bed loses its regular character; and were the waters of the Pacific drained off, six ranges of mountains, from 7,000 to 12,600 feet in height, would appear between the two island groups, "clothed on their sides and top with coral limestone, sand, and lava, and solid rock, with yellowish brown soil in their valleys." The

deepest water found was 3,287 fathoms, and near the Bonin group. Fifty-nine casts were made, eighteen of them in over 3,000 fathoms. Proceeding to Yokohama, the *Tuscarora* made twelve casts, the deepest in 2,435 fathoms.

—On the return voyage the northern line of soundings, *via* the Aleutian chain, was completed. In the Kuro Siwo, or black stream of Japan, the current was so strong that soundings were abandoned. In latitude 40° N. they were renewed, and with remarkable results. Running towards Tanaga, of the Aleutian group, seven casts were made in over 4,000 fathoms, the deepest in 4,655 fathoms. Good specimens were brought up from four of these casts; in one the cylinder struck rock; in the two last and deepest casts the wire broke—one from a momentary carelessness at the reel; and the other, after 400 fathoms had been reeled in, "pulled in two from the strain at that great depth, five and a quarter miles." "So far," says Belknap, "these are the deepest soundings ever made." The conditions were all favorable—light wind, smooth sea, and gentle swell; the wire had run straight down like a sound in a pond or a plummet in a well, and the indications of the dynamometer were perfect and unmistakable. There could be no mistaking the instant of touch." Captain Belknap complains, and it seems to us with justice, that Mr. Wild of the *Challenger's* civil staff has thrown discredit on his deepest sounding, and has asserted that the greatest of all depths of which we have reliable evidence was found by the *Challenger* between the Caroline and Ladrone Islands, 4,575 fathoms. Belknap's soundings were made by the new and beautiful piano-wire method, suggested by Sir William Thomson, with the Brooke rod and sinker, the whole apparatus receiving on the *Tuscarora* its final form of extraordinary perfection. Simple as it was, it needed to be managed with great care; and this care was constantly given by officers and men. Particular credit is given to Lieut. G. A. Norris and Quartermaster Burns. Belknap contends that if Wild had been familiar with the Thomson machine and its workings he would not have discredited the *Tuscarora's* work, in which four tests proved the accuracy of the soundings—the action of the dynamometer, the stopping of the revolutions of the drum, the detachment of the sinker, and the bringing up of the bottom soil. The *Tuscarora* returned to San Francisco September 2, the anniversary of her departure from Cape Flattery. She had traversed 16,600 miles, and made 483 casts; the *Challenger's* casts in four years were 384. Of the soundings made by the *Tuscarora* thirty-two were in more than 3,000 fathoms; nine in depths ranging from 4,000 to 4,655 fathoms. Belknap's article contains some interesting references to the work of the Coast Survey steamer *Blake*, under Commander Sigbee, and to other recent deep-sea operations.

—In some respects the ablest of recent contributions to the Ritualist controversy in England is a paper in the *British Quarterly Review* for July on "The Evangelical Movement: Its Parentage, Progress, and Issue," by Mr. Gladstone. It is very temperately, almost tentatively, written, but for that reason it is perhaps more persuasive; and it is particularly effective because what we take to be its motive and its real pith is a defence of the Tractarian movement and its succession, the so-called Ritualism of the present day, and because this is conducted indirectly and under the guise of an examination of the Evangelical movement. In this Mr. Gladstone displays the wisdom of the serpent, and to our mind his subtle attack upon the Evangelical position towards Ritualism is much stronger than Dr. Littledale's open field-tactics in his late discussion with the Abbé Martin. To be sure, Dr. Littledale's task was the more difficult, it may be said; he was endeavoring to show good reasons "Why Ritualists do not become Roman Catholics." But the Evangelical accusation against Ritualism consists solely of asking this same question, and it is, after all, the essence of the controversy, whether it is conducted with Romanists or with Low-Churchmen or with the Puritan Nonconformists. Mr. Gladstone argues that the relation of the Evangelical movement to the Tractarian movement was one of parentage, which will shock even Dean Stanley, peradventure, but in refutation of which it is hard to see what the Low-Churchmen can find in the historical argument, if they appeal to the historical argument to show the Tractarian tendency towards Rome. And this they always do, since it is the chief weapon they have. Mr. Gladstone points out that if one was a case of *post hoc ergo propter hoc*, the other was, and he says it will not do to answer this by the just but irrelevant observation, "Tractarianism was a movement obviously in the direction of the Church of Rome; Evangelicalism was a movement not obviously in the direction of Tractarianism." Of all the Tractarian leaders who followed Dr. Newman, "it must be said that, as they proceeded from Oxford (so to speak) to Rome, so they had already marched from Clapham to Oxford." This he supports not only by various

distinguished examples, but by showing the spiritual nexus, and his *tu-quoque* retort seems complete. On the whole, however, he concludes that "the great preparatory agent in co-operation with the Roman Church is the war now so actively waged against belief." His article is likely to provoke discussion, especially as it appears in the *British Quarterly*, which has not entirely outlived the reproach of "existing as an organ for the political Dissenters" long ago brought against it.

—At all events, if it does not the reason may perhaps be found in the want of luminousness and pointedness in Mr. Gladstone's manner, which often affords a curious literary study in itself. He is always copious to extravagance, but here, for the very reason doubtless that he felt himself bound to write dispassionately, he loses the measure of directness and simplicity which, in writing of Bulgaria or in speaking of Lord Beaconsfield, his unchecked personal ardor attains for him. He seems to occupy very much the same position that he held when Macaulay controverted his youthful argument upon the Apostolic Succession, and, as we say, the pith of his article on "The Evangelical Movement," etc., seems to be a subtle defence of Ritualism. At the same time he cannot be accused of lacking the Evangelical spirit. In a dozen places in his paper he refers to the crying faults of the Establishment, past and present, he does full honor to the Evangelical return to the "preaching of Christ," and his passing tributes to Wesley and Whitefield are as evidently genuine as his mention of Hook and Keble. His sketch of the Evangelical movement's rise and progress is elaborate; he nowhere explicitly excuses what are termed "Ritualist vagaries," and, indeed, it may be said that what he urges in their defence is urged indirectly and in palliation. Furthermore, on every other page there is a paragraph of digression upon some strictly extraneous matter which compels him to observe constantly that it is foreign to his "present purpose"; so that what his "present purpose" even is, it is difficult to discover with thorough satisfaction. His essay has the air of beginning anywhere and tending any whither. There is a manifest introduction, but where it terminates there is no ready means of ascertaining. There seems in all the fourteen pages no proposition distinctly advanced—no distinct "statement in words about a thing." It presupposes great technical erudition, and of its style the following sentence is not an unfair illustration: "A far larger and deeper problem is, of course, presented to us when we enquire, in connection with these differences, what front the Christianity of the country, and especially the great Anglican community, is to present to the disintegrating movement, which, however premature in its songs of triumph over Christianity, has undoubtedly made a progress which some years ago would have seemed incredible, in the business of sapping the foundations of belief in individual minds." Demosthenes was fond of long sentences, but his differed from Mr. Gladstone's in having, as a distinguished Greek professor once observed, "a snapper on the end."

—M. Renan has written an explanation of that part of his Academy address which offended Germany, in the form of a "Lettre à un Ami d'Allemagne." This supposititious friend having informed him that what he had said had been regarded in Germany as the utterance of an enemy, he writes in reply that such a judgment is superficial, and proceeds in a pamphlet of a dozen pages to elaborate rather than extenuate his criticism. He explains, however, "J'ai pu aller à l'encontre de certaines opinions des militaires et des hommes d'état de Berlin; je n'ai pas dit un mot contre l'Allemagne et son génie." M. Renan does not, to speak familiarly, carry very heavy guns for use in conflicts other than those which belong to his particular province. Even in that he does not command the respect of wholly unimaginative rivals; one recalls the remark of the late M. Doudan: "I know of no theologian with so intimate a knowledge of Oriental flora." But, aside from the charm which his writings have—his books almost read themselves—what he says is always interesting because he always moves in the sphere of ideas, because he is always concerned with truths rather than with facts, and with truths of a spiritual order. The manifestations of the human spirit occupy him to the exclusion of systems and theories on the one hand and practice on the other. In this essay, with all his accustomed elegance and more than his accustomed precision, he examines what may be called the Berlin ideal—unless Prince Bismarck objects to the word "ideal" as in itself involving sentimentalism—and the flaws he finds in it are worth attention, notably at the present time. It disdains everything that is not force, he says, and its heroes are "hommes de fer"; and he draws a vivid contrast between the Germany of to-day and the Germany of fifty or sixty years ago—the Germany of Goethe. To that Germany, "noble, intelligent, and profound," France, in M. Renan's view, owed much. It learned idealism of Fichte, faith in humanity of Herder, the poetry of the moral sense of Schiller,

abstract duty of Kant. It imagined—"voyez notre naïveté"—that the German nation would become united after the principles laid down by Fichte or Kant, and then would appear in the great European confederation a people philosophical, rational, a friend of every kind of liberty, the enemy of the old superstitions, and having for its symbol justice and the ideal. Instead of this, profound discontent reigns in united Germany; whereas ordinarily after victory repression is needless, the Government is constantly occupied with measures restricting liberty; it has made of the people a nation organized for war, and, like the knights of the sixteenth century, hampered by its armor; socialist agitation, at once a malady and a symptom, is rife; in constitutional government no progress has been made; its parliamentary life is no more brilliant, free, or fertile than that of other peoples; statesmen are rigorously preoccupied with restrictions, repressions, and coercive measures; there is no succession to Goethe and Schiller and Heine; the military service is designed to foster *Junkerism* to the destruction of the finest flower of literary genius, and the social condition tends to the same result; the campaign against Ultramontanism has not advanced the question of the separation of church and state a step; finally, the idea of ruling humanity by love of humanity, by lofty, liberal, and sympathetic sentiments, is laughed at and treated as a sentimental and pretentious notion by her new masters, men of a cold and arid school, who tend to destroy rather than to develop Germany. Such, at least, is the substance of M. Renan's indictment.

—On the other hand, his essay is worth reading for its exposition of M. Renan's own ideal, from which Anglo-Saxons may pardonably conclude that there is a *juste milieu* somewhere, not thought of by M. Renan. What is supposed to be the typical French ideal is easy to parody, and a good deal of not too discriminating ridicule has been poured upon that part of M. Renan's reception address which demanded "captains with sonorous battle-cries." Such ridicule is cheap, it may be said, but it would hardly be so common, perhaps, if it had not an element of justice in it. Our notion of what the French mean by "*gloire*" is not utterly removed from the contempt which the cockney felt for a nation that called bread "*pain*." "Well," said his friend, "we call it bread; what's the difference?" "Oh! but you know it *is* bread," was his reply. Still, it is very far from necessary to misunderstand M. Renan in order to recognize the inadequacy of his ideal, its moral weakness and its lack of seriousness. These things go without saying, he would no doubt rejoin, but that is very much the view that men who are religious only on Sundays maintain towards religion. "La grandeur oblige," "L'homme qui a obéi est à jamais perdu pour certaines délicatesses de la vie," "La littérature suppose une société gaie, brillante, facile, disposée à rire d'elle-même," "Nous ne comprenons pas qu'on règne sur le monde sans grandeur, sans éclat"—a dozen such sentences carry an implication which Prince Bismarck is quite right in disregarding, if not in disdaining. They undoubtedly contain a measure of truth which Teutonic races are not likely to overvalue, but one wonders in reading them if M. Renan would thoroughly appreciate a distinction very forcibly made once by Mr. Carlyle: "These poor, persecuted Scotch Covenanters" said I to my enquiring Frenchman, in such stunted French as stood at command, "ils s'en appelaient"—"A la postérité," interrupted he, helping me out. "Ah! monsieur, non, mille fois non! They appealed to the Eternal God, not to posterity at all. C'était différent!"

—The 'Key to Domesday, showing the Method and Exactitude of its Mensuration,' exemplified from the Dorset survey by the Cheshire historian, the Rev. R. W. Eyton, is a full source of painstaking and erudite information upon a puzzle-ground for scholars from the eleventh century itself. Has anybody satisfactorily defined a Domesday hide, which one of our latest archæologists with good reason maintains is "variable according to the arability or pasturability of the land"? The *Athenæum* is so well satisfied with Mr. Eyton's book as to wish that it were in his mind "to do for Domesday Book, taken as a whole, what he has done so thoroughly and so conscientiously for one only of the counties surveyed." Mr. Eyton is clear that the *pertica* or *virga* contains 164 feet, and sets the *quarentena* at 40, and the *leuva*, *leuca*, or *leuga* at 7,920 feet. The lineal *acra*, quite distinct from the square acre, is fixed at 4 *perticae*, while the square or areal acre equals 160 *perticae* of 30½ square yards each. Ten areal acres are put to one square *quarentena*, twelve of these latter making the areal league.

—It is a curious fact that Diez's 'Poesie der Troubadours' (Zwickau, 1826) and 'Leben und Werke der Troubadours' (1829) still constitute the best history of Provençal poetry. The *Nation* has called attention from time to time to the shortcomings of Diez's successors. The books, how-

ever, of Rutherford, Miss Preston, and Hueffer laid claim to a popular character only, and were entitled to some indulgence on this account. The latest work on this subject is so pretentious, and at the same time so much worse in many respects than those above mentioned, that it deserves the severest treatment. We allude to the 'Historia Política y Literaria de los Trovadores,' by Don Víctor Balaguer (Madrid, 1878-79). The first two volumes contain seven preliminary discourses, and the biographies of sixty-four troubadours. As Bartsch in his 'Grundriss' names four hundred and sixty, it will be seen that Señor Balaguer's work will probably extend to six or seven volumes. The plan of the work is precisely that of Millot's 'Histoire Littéraire des Troubadours' (Paris, 1892), which, it is within bounds to say, Balaguer has lifted bodily. So barefaced a piece of literary borrowing we have never seen. Page after page of biographical notices are transferred literally, while constant use is made of Millot's prose translations from the Provençal, which are copied down to italics, omissions, and punctuation—and all this without a word of acknowledgment. The character of the author's own studies may be seen from his statement in his *Prólogo* that he had collected materials for his work from the various libraries of France for two years before he knew of the existence of Raynouard's 'Choix des Poésies des Troubadours.' An utter lack of scientific method characterizes the whole work. In the entire six hundred and sixty pages there are four citations of works by volume and page. Of all the Provençal texts used not one is referred to its source, although most of them are taken from Raynouard, whose erroneous theory of the origin of the Romance languages Balaguer seems to share. He also accepts too readily Nostradamus's fabulous stories, among them that of William of Cabestaing, now thoroughly exploded. The preliminary discourses are superficial, especially those on the various classes of poetry and on the courts of love, the very existence of which Diez disproved fifty years ago. We trust Provençal scholars will not be led by its attractive appearance and pretentious character to purchase this worthless abstract of Millot.

JOHNSON'S RELIGION OF CHINA.*

THIS work, comprising 1,000 pages less one, is a marvel of labor and research. It is a further instalment in the execution of a great purpose undertaken by its author—viz., the investigation of the character of the Oriental religions and their relation to *that* religion which contains universal elements, or is governed by universal laws, such as historical continuity, reaction, ideal demand and supply. Such a universal religion, though it exists not in a concrete form, may be justly idealized and reasoned upon. It is, in other words, the religion of humanity. The design of the author, then, would be to detect these elements or laws in the religions he surveys, and so bring them within the common *nexus* that, so far, binds together the human race, and, we may add, proves its common origin and eventual destiny. The vast labor required for such enquiry, and the penetration necessary for carrying it out with any hope of success, must be evident to all. The religions of the East, except Christianity, are still, as far as our knowledge of them goes, wrapt in obscurity. As concerns India, its sacred books have yet to be translated. What we know of the Vedas leaves us almost as ignorant of the genius of the Indian mind as we were before. They are grand in their simplicity, but uninformative in the solution of the great questions which, if they did not grow out of them, followed after them, and perplexed the minds of thousands of subtle thinkers. We have only a fragmentary knowledge of the Upanishads, and the whole of the Indian theology is founded on these. With respect to the Vedānta, although we have excellent summaries of its doctrine, yet, until the formidable list of Upanishads named by Colebrooke at the beginning of section ix. of his work on the 'Philosophy of the Hindus' be translated, we cannot be said to have a thorough knowledge of its origin and development. Mr. Banerjee, indeed, seems to think that the Vedānta owes very much of its dogma, if not its origin, to the speculations of Buddhist controversialists; and in this many others agree with him. But if the religions of India are yet only half known to us, what shall we say about China? What do we know of the religious life of the three hundred and fifty million human beings who inhabit that mountain-girt empire? Next to nothing. We have their books, some of them well translated; but what do we know of their lives? And if we do not know the character of a nation's inner life, we cannot pretend to be acquainted with its religion; for book-religion is one thing, and the belief and life of a people, very often, another.

The only way to review such a work as that before us is to say something as to its object and method, and then to select some one point in the field of its research for illustration. We have said something about the object of the book. It is professedly intended to be a search after elements in the Chinese religious character the possession of which proves them, in this particular at least, to belong to the great religious federation of the world. We confess the object appears to us an illusory one. We may think we have found out some touches in the picture that harmonize with our conceptions of what must be universal, but unfortunately the field is so vast, and our actual knowledge of its true character so contracted, that what we take to belong to the whole may indeed be only exceptional, and therefore deceptive in its character in the search after the object named. And as we confess this to be our view of the case, we must add that, notwithstanding all the learning and the wonderful amount of detail contained in the book before us, we have closed it with something like disappointment, because we do not find ourselves satisfied that the object has been attained; nor do we feel that we have any very distinct apprehension of what it is in the religions of China, so far as they are *Chinese*, which brings the people of that country into the federation we have named. In fact, the very startling question has to be answered first, Has China any religion at all?—that is, any religion *of its own*. If we take the word religion to mean the act of remembering (the opposite, in fact, of *negligere*), then undoubtedly the Chinese are the most religious people in the world, for their whole life is built up on this basis of remembering the teaching of their ancestors, particularly Yao and Shun. And, in fact, perhaps this is the element which connects them religiously with the rest of the world. But it is evident that "to remember" is only one factor in the definition of the word religion; *what* we remember, and *with what view* we bring ourselves to remember, these are further elements in the question; and if it be necessary, in order to entitle a people to be called religious, that they remember something more than their social duties, with a view to something beyond the present life, then we can hardly find out from their books, at least, that the Chinese as a distinct people have any religious life of their own.

But if the object of Mr. Johnson's work appears to us more or less an impossible one to reach, the method of the work both for its originality and wonderful completeness demands the highest commendation. What may be known of the Chinese can certainly be found out from the methodical arrangement of the materials in the work before us. The method is, first of all, to select certain leading divisions under which the enquiry may be exhaustively conducted—(these divisions are five in number, named as follows: (1) Elements, (2) Structures, (3) Sages, (4) Beliefs, (5) Philosophy)—and then in the several divisions to search out fundamental ideas, which in some way or other tend to illustrate the subject of enquiry. It need hardly be remarked that to follow the author through the field he has chosen would be impossible in a mere review of the work. Suffice it to say that no task could have been more conscientiously fulfilled than that which his own method exacted from him. Each division might, indeed, be the substance of a separate treatise. The only fear we have is that the very thoroughness of the author's research may tend rather to embarrass the reader, and burden his memory with facts and conclusions too numerous to be carried forward in the calculation in which he is engaged. In one of the subdivisions of the work, viz., that which treats upon "language" (the third subdivision under the heading "Structure"), we find many remarks of an interesting character. Nothing, we imagine, can throw more light on the genesis and growth of the religious idea in man than the words or symbols used in the earliest ages to represent the Divinity, or the highest object of worship. In this there is an absolute agreement in all the typical races of mankind. If we take the earliest Aryan symbol, it will be found in the figure which undoubtedly stood for the mystical syllable "OM." This symbol is merely the junction of three signs which respectively indicated the sun, the moon, and the stars. It is simply this: ☉. In cases too numerous to mention this symbol is found for the purpose of indicating "the Highest," or the object of divine worship. The curious reader may refer only to the Pāli inscription found in Burnouf's 'Lotus,' p. 438. But what we want to observe is that this idea of something "high" or "exalted" is also contained in the Chinese symbol 皇, which by its very structure (and, we may add, its acknowledged significance) indicates that which is high or exalted above the earth; and, therefore, amongst the Japanese is translated by "Kami"—i.e., God—and in the Chinese itself is the principal factor in the composition of the term Shang-ti, which is regarded by the best-informed Sinologists as the only correct rendering of our word for the Divinity. And now compare with this the Semitic word for "heaven" (*shamaim*).

* 'Oriental Religions and their relation to Universal Religion. China. By Samuel Johnson.' Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co.

which, as Goldziher remarks, is derived from the idea of "height," and even our own word "heaven"—*i.e.*, something "raised" or "heaved up"—and we shall see how in the earliest times there was an agreement amongst men that in worship there was an object *above* themselves deserving of loving adoration (kissing the hand), and that this object was as a father, a heavenly father, a father in heaven, the high and lofty one. This is a common element in the religious life of the race, but in China it was lost at a very early period, and can hardly be said to exist there as a distinct conception now, or at least only in a material and degraded sense. And yet the language of China bears testimony to truth of an original search after a supreme object of worship in other ways. There is one symbol, for instance, which has come now to mean "the heart," or "the mind," as appertaining to ourselves. In all the old Buddhist books this symbol is used to signify the same as the Sanskrit *Ātman* (nom. sing. *Ātmā*), which, according to our dictionaries, is rendered by "breath," "soul," etc., but which is in fact equal to the "highest self" or the "supreme existence." Now, the character is described in the best Chinese books to be compounded of a curved stroke, which represents the crescent of the moon, and three dots, to denote the stars above the moon; in other words, this primitive symbol was designed to signify the "highest" or "Ātman," so that the worship of the "supreme self" must have been known in China at the time when this character was devised. And now, if we connect these three dots or stars with the three gods (,) of Semitic origin, used for "Adonai," and with the *Candra-vindu*, "the dot in the crescent" (☾), in Sanskrit, which dot in the crescent is now the symbol of the Moslem, adopted by them to signify their divine power; and, finally, if we go back to the primitive symbol alluded to above, viz., ☉ as the equivalent of "OM," being the sun, moon, and stars conjoined, we seem to arrive at this conclusion: that the symbols used in the three great families of man, viz., the Chinese or Mongolian, the Aryan, and the Semitic, to signify "the highest," or "the supreme object of worship," are identical, and that, therefore, there was a oneness of thought and an agreement of expression in the great human mind as to the object of worship, shared by East and West alike in their primitive home, and carried by the several branches of the divided race to their respective locations.

Mr. Johnson is particularly happy in his remarks on Buddhism (Division iv. sec. 2). It is indeed a subject of vast dimensions to handle thoroughly, but according to his plan our author exhausts it for all practical purposes. Under the heading, "The Coming of Buddhism," and the causes of its growth in China, he shows that Mr. Fergusson's theory of the origin of Buddhism in "serpent worship" is quite untenable; he accounts rather for its growth because it was a slow-sure movement, with secular aid, to which he might have added that it was introduced into the country under the immediate auspices of the reigning monarch, and at a period of reviving literary enquiry after the destruction of the books and the persecution of the literati. Mr. Johnson then refers to the ethical side of Buddhism, which was preached first, that is very true; but we must also connect with this the translation of "The Life of Buddha" into Chinese, which was made at the very introduction of the religion; and the simple, touching, and, we may say, truth-like biography of the sage had doubtless a wonderful effect in winning disciples to his doctrine. The industry of Buddhist preachers and scholars is another reason given, and a very just one, especially when joined with the wonder caused by their travels and adventures. The sympathies of Buddhism are a fourth reason; force of organization another; reaction against Confucian contempt or what, perhaps, we might call the supposed *finality* of Confucianism, this is another and a weighty reason; and, lastly, Mr. Johnson adds the power of its intrinsic virtues as a cause of success. This is all very true and to the point. It would be well if this section were more generally read and studied by those who are interested in the religious history of the Chinese. Mr. Johnson then goes on to consider the development of Buddhism through its four stages: 1. As a primitive system concerning itself chiefly with the great question of the cause of sorrow and the mode of its destruction. 2. The *Hināyana* system, as it embraces the beginning of conventual life, and concerns itself more with philosophical speculations. 3. The *Mahāyana* system, which, in fact, marks the beginning of a supposed *gnosis* in reference to matters which the former systems had not mentioned, such as the character of Nirvāna, the supreme soul, the nature of Tathāgata, and so on; and, fourthly, Mysticism, which is the natural counterbalance of scholastic refinements. Under these headings Mr. Johnson surveys the development of Buddhism. Lastly, from p. 800 to p. 833, Mr. Johnson sketches out a history of Chinese Buddhism, or of Buddhism in China, as distinct

from the Buddhism of India. This part of the subject is ably treated, but cannot be fully handled by any one until we have more of the native literature, faithfully and fully translated, especially the writings of the Tsung, or contemplative school, which has taken deep root in the south of China.

To go on with this book would be to distract rather than engage the attention of our readers. Suffice it to say that if any one wants to take up a study in a line out of the common way, and to master it as a problem is mastered by the mathematician, he has here, in Mr. Johnson's work, materials for a complete investigation of a subject which few have ever thought upon—viz., the relative position of the Chinese as a religious people with other nations in the West, and how far this relationship accounts for the differences in daily life and habits which separate this people so conspicuously from the rest of the world.

TURENNE'S 'NORTH AMERICA.'*

COUNT TURENNE, who spent fourteen months in the United States and in Canada, differs in many respects from the ordinary French traveller, and the difference is greatly to the advantage of his readers. As a rule, a Frenchman, particularly a Parisian, away from his beloved Paris, would not be charmed even with Utopia. He eats no dinners as good as those at the *Café Anglais*; sees no plays as enjoyable as those at the *Français*, and meets no people as witty as the Parisian, or as happy as the French peasant. Count Turenne, however, travels and examines in a candid, if not an enthusiastic, spirit. He came to this country in the fall of 1875, and visited the principal cities of the Union, making repeated and prolonged stays in New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Chicago, St. Louis, New Orleans, and San Francisco. His volumes abound in exact statistical and economical accounts, which, though of slight interest to the American reader, to whom they are familiar, cannot fail to diffuse a great deal of useful information among the French, who are not, as a nation, entirely free from a provincial ignorance of the social, political, and commercial life of foreign countries. Thanks to his own name and position, and to the circumstance that his travelling companion was Baron Edmond de Rothschild, of the Paris branch of the great banking-house, the author travelled under particularly favorable circumstances. His impression of New York society as well as that of the other large cities which he visited will best be understood if reproduced in his own language:

"In fine, after having spent more than three months in travelling in the United States, living a little in every kind of society, it is impossible for me to avoid observing that society does not exist there, excepting in very limited proportions. And by society I mean those *rapports*, those sympathetic communications, that one has with others. America is full of men who have succeeded marvellously, and who are themselves a failure; whose residences are splendid, but whose souls are vulgar; who have pictures and cannot appreciate them, books and do not read them, clothes and bad fashions, clients (*clients* in the Roman sense) but no society, flatterers but no friends. They have acquired fortune by great effort, but they do not know how to enjoy it. To be sure, there are eminent minds, enlightened and cultivated in art, letters and science, but they associate with each other almost exclusively in a by no means numerous group, which in the wealthy or well-to-do class forms a sort of caste by itself, and constitutes what might be called 'the true society.' Its defects are, as palpably as in any country, those which are the result of early education, and access to it for the wealthy of the old world is difficult."

In Washington and Baltimore Count Turenne was struck by the ludicrous anxiety of many sensible and refined people to trace their origin to ancient and illustrious houses. The mania for titles he considers common to all classes of American society, and the prevalence of it in a democratic republic leads him to conclude that human nature has a horror of equality. He assures his French readers that the number of senators, governors, judges, generals, and colonels—particularly colonels—to whom he was introduced is something fabulous. When it had become known that he had served in the French army he was immediately called colonel, in spite of his repeated and earnest protestations that he had never held so high a rank.

The position of women in American society naturally occupies a great deal of Count Turenne's chivalric attention. The personal charms of American ladies he considers superior to those of any European nation, and the elegance of their manners seems to him to exercise a wholesome and refining influence upon the harsh and angular character and behavior of the men. American men, in return, show an amount of almost religious attention and devotion to women which the author

* Quatorze mois dans l'Amérique du Nord. Par le Comte Louis de Turenne. 2 vols. 8vo. Paris, 1879. New York: F. W. Christern.



thinks unparalleled in any other country. The general inferiority of the men as compared with the women is due, he suggests, to the very deficient schooling which most of the former get. At the age of fifteen or sixteen, when, among the better classes of European nations, the serious part of a boy's education really begins, the American boy is commonly taken from school and obliged to enter some business, where in the struggle for wealth, which alone secures position in American society, he soon entirely neglects and forgets the very slender rudiments of education which he carried away from the school-room. To this very deficiency, however, and by way of compensation, is due the fact that the character of the young American gains such an amount of self-reliance, independence, energy, and capacity of administration at an age when European boys are under the strictest surveillance of schoolmasters and parents.

In his long journey across the continent from New York to the Pacific, where he also visited the interior parts of Colorado, Nevada, Montana, Idaho, etc., the author gives elaborate statistical accounts of the commercial activity of the West, of which the general French public has probably never heard so much heretofore. Part of the account will doubtless prove discouraging—as, for example, when the average French farmer, burdened in his own eyes, at least, with taxes, compulsory military service, and material difficulties of various sorts, reads that owing to an unequalled system of canals, railways, river, lake, and ocean steam-navigation, the grains of the West and Northwest of the United States can be delivered in England and France at an average price of 16 francs per hectolitre, while he labors at a loss if the price of grain falls below 22 francs for the same quantity.

Count Turenne devotes an entire chapter to an account of his visit to Salt Lake City, and manifests a proper abhorrence of Mormonism. He spent three weeks in New Orleans, where the remains of the old Creole aristocracy naturally charmed him. He made two long visits in Canada, and was, of course, delighted with Lord Dufferin, whom he met and who appeared to him the English gentleman, *par excellence*; and in an analysis of the Constitution of the Dominion he expresses similar admiration of that. As to the future of the political institutions of the United States, however, Count Turenne exhibits, in several places, gloom and despondence. From his interviews with some of the best-informed and most sober-minded men in this city, he feels inclined to arrive at the conclusion that few of them believe in the stability of the present state of affairs and in the existing form of Government. This, indeed, is perhaps the only shallow and superficial part of his entertaining work.

Count Turenne is a lively and interesting writer, his descriptions of natural scenery are vivid, often graphic, and where his patriotic sentiments come into play, as among the French element in Canada and Louisiana (where he evidently lost his heart to a beautiful girl of half French origin), he even grows pathetic, and occasionally "drops" into poetry. A certain dulness and monotony is excusable in consideration of statistical tables and figures which fill many pages of the two volumes. The book must be of great use to French readers, who wish to learn something of a country and a nation in whose welfare the French people have always expressed a lively sympathy, but of whose political, commercial, and social life the majority is singularly ignorant. Nor can it fail to interest American readers, who would like to see themselves and their institutions judged by an intelligent, high-bred gentleman.

Webster's Unabridged Dictionary. New edition, with Supplement. (Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam. 1879.)—The time seems to have come when some close observer of words, some student of language who is at the same time a wide reader in many departments, might profitably issue an annual supplementary dictionary of the English language on the same plan as the annual supplements to popular encyclopædias. Such a work would have two functions: in the first place, of course, to register everything new which has made its appearance during the year in the English language—new and yet not wholly ephemeral; and in the second place to put formally on record phrases and single words which have been in every one's mouth perhaps for years past, but are never seen in print outside of newspapers and light fiction, and least of all to be found in dictionaries. This latter class should be inserted not only for the sake of foreigners and speakers of English a century hence, but for the English and Americans of to-day. It is never safe for a lexicographer to leave anything out because every one knows it already. "What every one knows" resolves itself into "What I know," and this latter varies as the editor is interested in politics, athletics, brie-à-brac, or what not. The omission of such phrases, and of another class—namely, those which

every native speaker of English understands, but many mere readers of the language do not—was a conspicuous deficiency in Webster's Dictionary, and is still a fault of the Supplement. The editors had ready at hand in Hoppe's (German) *Supplement-Lexikon* a valuable collection of idioms and allusions from the works of Dickens, Thackeray, Trollope, etc., to which Hoppe had been frank enough to add an appendix of phrases the meaning of which neither he nor his friends had been able to find out—*freshmen salmon*, for instance. Foreigners, and especially foreign lexicographers (like Hoppe among the Germans and Grimaux and Lagros among the French), have sharper eyes than we have for what is new (*i.e.*, unrecorded) and strange in English. Another important desideratum in any dictionary is words and phrases which Englishmen understand and Americans misunderstand, and *vice versa*. Of this the Supplement takes cognizance in at least one instance, *viz.* in adding to the noun *record* the definition, "the list of known facts in a person's life, especially in that of a public man; personal history; as, a good or a bad record."

A general survey of the sources of the new Supplement discloses the insertion of a good many Shaksperian meanings, and pretty frequent reference to Matthew Arnold, Browning, Tennyson, Dickens, Macdonald, George Eliot, F. W. Newman, Marryat, Scott, Darwin, Lubbock, etc., for the later or still living English writers; and to John Russell Bartlett's "Dictionary," Lowell, Emerson, Hawthorne, etc., for Americanisms or classic American usage. A few examples will illustrate the character of the additions, and incidentally afford a glimpse of the world's progress in the interval since 1864, the date of the last edition: After-glow, aggressively, albert-type, alcoholism, Algonkin; banality, bicycle, Bohemian (literary and other), Brahmo Somaj, butter-fingered; Calisaya bark, card-catalogue, carpet-bagger, chauvinism, cod-liver oil, Contism, *crédit-mobilier*; Darwinian and Darwinianism (why not the vastly more common Darwinism, and Darwinist?); deacon, *v.t.*, "to line out the psalm" (but we miss the other New England meaning, *e.g.*, in connection with a box of berries which do not "grow bigger downwards"); dead-beat, derringer, Draconian, dynamite; earth-closet, evolution; Faradization, Fenian, fractional currency, Franklin-stove; Gatling-gun, gang-plough, gouache, Granger, greaser, greenback; health-lift, heliotype, herd-book, Hicksite, humanitarian (in the recent sense of a philanthropist, etc.); interview, *v.t.*, Irvingite; kindergärtner, Krupp-gun; lacrosse; margin (on the Street), microphone, mitrailleuse, Molly Maguire; nihilist; object-teaching, one-horse; papyrograph, Paris-green, Pelasgic, phenomenal, phonograph, pool (on the Street), Portland cement, primary (political), Pullman-car; repeater (at the polls), repoussé; shogunate (but not septennate), sorosis, stereogram; tasimeter, ticket (for voters), totemism, trade-dollar, trapeze, type-writer; underground-railroad; walking-gentleman.

Criticism of a dictionary, even of a good one, and this Supplement possesses the merits which every one accords to the parent work—generally consists of good-natured or ill-natured fault-finding with particular articles; and the first three letters of the alphabet certainly furnish not a few instances in which a person utterly ignorant and trustfully seeking information would not find it here. *Abdominal ring* is not, though the Supplement seems to say that it is, a sort of annular wound in the abdomen; under *acupressure* we are left in doubt whether the ends of the artery or of the needle are left in sight; there would be no *raison d'être* for the *alethescope*, "an instrument for viewing pictures by means of a lens, so as to present them in their natural proportions and relations," for the human eye has this very function; *aerotism* should be the absence rather than "a defect of pulsation"; *bench-show* is defined broadly enough to include cattle-fairs, and *bog-wood* to include all wood dug from peat-bogs. Under *arose* (coppery), *alose* (shad), and *anserous* (silly), the seeker is not informed that these words are extremely rare and not to be recommended; and the last, with *anatomism*, *armsweep*, and *daintify*, is probably one of those wilful, quite ephemeral, creations of individual writers which hardly deserve even cataloguing in an appendix. One phrase, which has become the *bête-noire* of those who have occasion to consult dictionaries frequently—namely, "a kind of"—still affronts us in the Supplement; a *bag-wig* is "a kind of wig in use in the eighteenth century," and a *bertha* is "a kind of cape worn by ladies." So much every one could tell from the context of the book he was reading, and is righteously indignant at having asked his dictionary for bread and received a stone. Finally, the indefinite article is used more indefinitely than ever in such chemical definitions as those of *amine* and *carbide*. *Amine* is said to be "a substance derived from ammonia by replacement," etc. The learner will ask: Is *amine* a single specific compound with as definite a composi-

tion as acetic acid? or is any one of a single class of compounds derived from ammonia, etc., entitled to be called an amine? or, finally, is any compound whatever derived from ammonia, etc., an amine?

There is one improvement, affecting the whole scheme of the Dictionary, which we should have been glad to find uniformly carried out in the Supplement, but do not. To recur to the word *deacon*, we are told (and for the foreigner it is an indispensable piece of information) that it is usually associated with the word *off*. But there are thousands of words—verbs, substantives, and adjectives—whose meaning is completed, or relation to other words in the same sentence indicated, by adverbs or prepositions which are idiomatic to the English. Often enough the native has to hesitate which to choose; sometimes the usage is mixed; not seldom the English is opposed to the American. Now, neither in Webster nor in Worcester is help given invariably and systematically. As a rule it is left to the accident of an illustrative quotation; thus, in the Supplement, under *directive*, we find the Shaksperian "Directive by the limbs," certainly not cited by the lexicographer on account of the word *by*, but for the sake of the authority merely. No such chance aid is given under *despolize (over)*; nor under *irresponsible*, which requires the preposition *to*, although *irrespective*, to the honest foreigner's confusion, requires *of*; nor under *original (with)*, *in*. To be sure, in the main work, under *averse* we are assured that this adjective ought to be followed by *to* and not *from*, "as formerly"—rather say, as now, in England, and as in O. T., "men averse from war" (Mic. ii. 8); and under *different*, that it is proper to use *from* and not *to*, as in England. So under *differ*, we have the usage with *from* expressly noted, and the usage with *in* suggested rather than enforced by a quotation; and under *agree*, the various usages with *to*, *in*, and *with* are similarly declared or inferrible. But we repeat that there is nothing systematic about this, so that if, for a final example, under *dependence* we learn, directly or indirectly, that it is followed by *on* or *from*, under *independence* we find no mention of any relative word, whether *of* or *upon*.

We should not do justice to this edition if we failed to mention the new feature of a Biographical Dictionary—the latest step towards making "the Unabridged" a cyclopædia. Of this we will only say that it is compiled on the principle of allowing one line to a name, and that the pronunciation subjoined to each is creditably accurate, and appears to be based on the trustworthy example of the Condensed American Cyclopædia. We conclude with the remark that as the publishers do not sell the Supplement apart from the Dictionary, the former will not fall for a number of years into the hands of those persons most competent to offer corrections and additions.

Progressive Japan. A Study of the Political and Social Needs of the Empire. By General Le Gendre. (San Francisco: A. L. Bancroft & Co. 1878.)—This is an essay in the higher branch of politics, discussing the present condition of Japan and the opportunities and dangers that are showing themselves on the horizon of that empire. Before 1867 the people of Japan were the subjects of their feudal lords, who ruled through *karōs* (ministers). When these officials misgoverned, the popular discontent was pretty surely followed by the suicide of the offender or his removal by the daimio. No one ever thought of blaming either the paternal daimio or the sacred Mikado. At a word from the Mikado the Shogunate was abolished, and the daimios, relinquishing their feudal privileges—the inheritance of ages—became practically pensioned noblemen. The supreme control and the actual government again centred in the Mikado, as in the infancy of the nation. But it became immediately evident that the methods of ruling a simple people during the period when they were wresting the land from the aborigines, was not adapted to a large population and a highly differentiated state of society. Various experiments were tried, resulting in the formation of three great boards developed out of the high council of the Mikado. These boards, consisting of nobles, chiefs of the Fu and Ken, and of men distinguished by their services to the country or for eminence in politics, were really nothing more than advisory committees having no legislative powers, though from the manner of their construction it seems to have been intended to raise them at some time to the position of representative bodies.

The present government of Japan is, therefore, a typical autoeracy, in which the paternal benevolence of the Mikado becomes perverted and polluted in passing through the channels of an intricate bureaucracy. There is nominally nothing interposed between the subject and the sovereign. The danger which General Le Gendre sees in this state of things

is, that the remedy for evils which is provided in constitutional governments by reconstruction of cabinets, etc., does not now exist in Japan; that the Mikado will gradually lose his sacred character in the eyes of his people, and that then troubles which might otherwise end with a change of ministers will end in the downfall of the most ancient and most beloved of dynasties.

Among the many grave problems presented to the Government was the future of the soldier-class and nobles, who had been from time immemorial paid retainers. Within a few years past these have been pensioned, and later their pensions have been capitalized by issuing to the recipients, once for all, Government bonds of more or less brief duration. Fears were entertained that this least provident portion of the people would waste its small capitals in the speculation which arose under the new order of things, and that, once rendered desperate by impoverishment, it would form a dangerous element of society. The most interesting chapter of the book is that devoted to showing that this class can find a wide and profitable field for self-maintenance and usefulness in agricultural pursuits, and that the actual exploitation of the resources of the empire is far below the possibilities. An instance is given where four hundred and eighty retainers, including two *karōs*, forming themselves into a land company, took a tract of land valued at \$240. They divided themselves into six sections of eighty men; each section, from the *karōs* down, working five days at a time. "Now, these gentlemen, unused to manual labor and unaided by any agricultural implements, have given a value, entirely by their labor, of \$72,000 to the tract, and this after only five years.

The author's manner of presenting his subject is not very clear, and the essay itself is evidently intended for the Japanese and not the foreign reader. But it will be found a useful document by the student of that extremely instructive episode of modern history which is presented in the sudden fall of feudalism in Japan. A voluminous appendix contains among other things a valuable table of classified statistics of production for the empire, a glossary of names of products, etc. From one of these tables we take the following items: the average value of the cultivated land is about \$200 per acre; the average taxation is nearly \$2.36 per acre, and the average revenue to the owner is 6 per cent. on the value of the land. There were produced (presumably in 1876 or 1877) 5,265 ounces gold; 287,729 ounces silver; 4,216 tons copper; 34,600 tons iron, and 410,000 tons of coal; the total value of the products of mines and quarries was \$4,750,000, and the total value of products from all sources—field, forest, mines, sea, and manufactures—was over \$428,000,000.

Obituary Notices of Astronomers, Fellows and Associates of the Royal Astronomical Society; written chiefly for the Annual Reports of the Council by Edwin Dunkin, F.R.S., F.R.A.S., of the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, Honorary Secretary of the Royal Astronomical Society, 1871–1877. (London: Williams & Norgate. 1879. 8vo, pp. 257.)—The title of this work indicates its contents in a tolerably accurate way. It consists of a series of short biographical sketches of twenty-three members of the Royal Astronomical Society of London, who died during the period between 1870 and 1878, and of a sketch of Sir William Herschel. These memoirs were originally inserted in the *Monthly Notices* of the Society or in magazines, and are now collected after having been revised, or in some cases re-written. The most important of these are the notices of Sir John Herschel (7 pages), Sir William Herschel (39 pages), Laugier of the Paris Observatory (30 pages), Le Verrier (8 pages), Littrow of Vienna (34 pages), and Main of Oxford (7 pages). The space devoted to the several notices shows that harmonious treatment is not attempted, as the importance of the work done by the subject of the memoir bears no relation to the extent of the notice.

The convenience of having sketches which were already in print bound up in one volume is the only excuse for the appearance of this book, which appeals to a very small public, in America at least. In a few cases the personal acquaintance of the author with the subjects of some of the memoirs has given a more lifelike tone to the notices; in general they are of but passing importance, and of no lasting value. They are more like the after-dinner talk of a good-natured colleague than serious memoirs of some of the greatest names this generation has had the misfortune to lose. In the one instance in which the author has risen to the pathetic (p. 84) his emotion appears to be caused as much by the fact that he was one of the "favored few" who followed the remains of Sir John Herschel to his tomb in Westminster Abbey as by the fact that that tomb was closing over the most restless and active astronomer of his generation; one who

had a double right to honor by his own work and as the inheritor of one of the greatest names in English science.

If on looking over the pages of this colorless book such strictures should seem severe, either because of the harmless good-nature of the author, or of the general and sluggish accuracy of the material, let it be remembered that some of these names are of those which should and will incite future generations to generous enthusiasms, and to years of toils and scant-paid work, to labors like those of Delaunay and Le Verrier in analysis, like those of D'Arrest and the two Herschels in observation. Such work should not be, is not to be, spoken of as if it were common, ordinary, and of every day. It is to be comprehended or left untouched. And it seems at least a right, if indeed it is not a duty, to say to those into whose hands this work may fall that all has not been told, and that, in fact, there are now in print notices of some of these great men in which the true insight has been used, and the true meaning and perspective of their lives and labors exhibited. We need only to refer to Arago's memoir of the elder Herschel as an example. Models were not far to seek even in this country, where the memoirs of Gilliss, Walker and others by Gould are alive with quite a different spirit. If the work lacks perspective and insight, let it be said that it is not ambitious, and is, as far as we have examined it, strictly correct, although utterly inadequate.

Milton. By Rev. Stopford A. Brooke. Classical Writers. Edited by John Richard Green. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1879.)—This is the first of what we take to be a series of primers in some sort similar to Mr. John Morley's "English Men of Letters" series. It is more comprehensive, in that it is to include Greek and Latin as well as English classics, and Mr. Green is naturally a different kind of editor from Mr. Morley. Mr. Morley's aim—at least his accomplishment indicates such an aim—is to select some writer especially fond of and learned in the author he desires written of, and then to allow him to unburden his mind to the top of his bent, as the phrase is; whereas Mr. Green, in the several analogous series that he has edited, exhibits a distinct conservatism, and endeavors to secure that nothing so uncertain as to be liable to provoke controversy shall find its way into a "primer." At first thought Mr. Green's notion seems manifestly the more commendable, though it should be observed that very likely Mr. Morley does not assume his series to be "educational" in any degree, but only "popular." One cannot, it seems at first thought, be too careful to keep one's own or the ideas of others from appearing under the guise of accepted and undisputed truth. Mr. Carlyle's poetical rhapsody upon the French Revolution should not, for example, be permitted to be used as a primer, one reflects, even supposing such use of it possible. At the same time Mr. Green's system has its disadvantages. His primers run the risk of being colorless, it must be acknowledged. It may be that some of them are likely not to be read at all for this reason. Mere chronicle is apt to suffer in a contest with history vivified by speculation. In the second place, it is possible to doubt if mere chronicle is in the long run as trustworthy as vivid historical portraiture—notably if the latter be painted by a master-hand. It is so nearly impossible for any one possessed of parts to confine himself religiously to mere chronicle; and a writer of any individuality who attempts this very frequently falls either into the error of a disproportionate valuation of certain details, or the error of losing, in his concentration upon details, the general tendency and large truth of his subject.

The remedies for these defects are, however, not difficult to a candid temper and a lucid intelligence, and these qualities are eminent in Mr. Stopford Brooke. Mr. Matthew Arnold took occasion to write an essay in general commendation of his 'Primer of English Literature,' in which he said that it was "clear, short, interesting, observant of proportion, free from exaggeration, and free from arbitrariness"—a good deal for Mr. Arnold to say, but the characterization applies appositely to this little volume on Milton. It tells the reader ignorant of Milton's life and work just what he should desire to know, and it is in the main an impartial guide to the reader measurably and superficially familiar with Milton, but not accustomed to think much of Milton's rank in English poetry. The narrative part could not have been better done, perhaps; it is rapid enough to avoid wearisomeness, and it is thoroughly sympathetic. The critical portion is open to controversy here and there, it may be, but we do not think the reader will get a total impression that is wrong. For example, Mr. Stopford Brooke lays down sixteen propositions upon which he says the theology of 'Paradise Lost' is based, and says it is plain from many of them "that to call Milton Calvinistic is absurd"; and elsewhere, "the prose works as a whole are not readable." Now and then, in references

to Johnson's 'Life,' one is disposed to differ with him, and he is so strong an admirer of Milton's stateliness that it seems as if he were occasionally blind to his sweetness. But all these things are quite matters of detail, and the essential lines of the portrait almost all persons will admit to be like. Aside from its verisimilitude, too, it is a vivid portrait—and that is a creation not too frequent in literary portraiture, even when the subject is as well understood of all men as Milton has come to be. Mr. Stopford Brooke is an enthusiastic admirer of Milton, but we notice that he has tempered here the expression of his enthusiasm in his 'Primer of English Literature,' and hence one follows him with the less reservation, not to say with—at the end—implicit confidence.

Stories from Herodotus, and the Seventh Book of the History. With English Notes by Robert P. Keep, Ph.D. (New York: Harper & Bros.)—This little volume, intended for beginners in Herodotus, contains the seventh book entire and about fifty pages of well-chosen stories, such as that of Croesus, of Polycrates, and of Cypselus. It gives the student, therefore, important specimens of the continuous narrative of the historian, and of those charming digressions which equally characterize his manner. The stories, as the editor suggests, may be used for practice in reading at sight, and we speak from previous experience in commending the suggestion. The introductions and notes skilfully hit that condensed minimum of commentary which the ordinary school-boy is willing to assimilate, and seem to meet his difficulties judiciously. A few of the translations might be improved. In the story of Cleobis and Biton, the rendering "The men of Argos praised the strength of the youths; the women, their filial spirit towards their mother," as a paraphrase is superfluous, as a translation is too free to be serviceable to beginners. A note on the unusual combination of constructions with *καταρτίζω* would have been more useful. In another passage, the word *ἐπιλήννας* is correctly explained (p. 231), and the student is directed to translate "Mardonius having spoken thus much in endorsement of the opinion of Xerxes, ceased." The italicized phrase misrepresents somewhat ludicrously the style of Herodotus and the relation of Mardonius to his master. We venture to doubt whether the expression "every one so ever" (p. 325) is possible in an affirmative English sentence, though it might be desirable as a representation of *πᾶσι τοῖς*.

The value of the book is increased by three maps and an excellent table of Ionic forms; the text is admirably clear, but in these days of degenerating and degenerate eyesight a larger type would be welcome to the student.

Four Lectures on some Epochs of Early Church History, delivered in Ely Cathedral by Charles Merivale, D.D., Dean of Ely. (New York: Anson D. F. Randolph & Co.)—Anything relating to the earlier portions of ecclesiastical history from the pen of the historian of Rome and of Latin Christianity may be expected to be instructive and interesting. The narrow limits of the course and the miscellaneous character of his audience, consisting, as Dean Merivale tells us, of the clergy and laity of the neighborhood, of divinity students, and of the upper classes of grammar-schools, did not admit of the presentation of anything very novel or profound. Each lecture treats an "Epoch," and gives an outline of the man whom the dean considers the principal character in it. The four epochs are included in the period extending from about the middle of the third to the end of the sixth century. At the beginning of this period the Western Church had just ceased to be an association despised, hated, and persecuted; at the end it had become a great, powerful, and completely organized body, directed by a single head at Rome, claiming and in many ways exercising authority over kings, princes, and people. Necessarily only the most prominent features of the history of the time are presented, but the sketch is clear and interesting.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Arnold (E.), <i>The Light of Asia: Poetry</i>	(Trübner & Co.)
Bellamy (C. J.), <i>The Berton Mills: a Tale</i>	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Brooke (Rev. S. A.), <i>Milton</i>	(D. Appleton & Co.) 60
Brown (R.), <i>Science for All, Paris 1-6, swd.</i>	(Caswell, Pether & Galpin)
Campbell (Sir G.), <i>White and Black in the United States</i>	(R. Worthington)
Dale (R. W.), <i>Impressions of America, swd.</i>	(D. Appleton & Co.) 25
De Amicis (E.), <i>Studies of Paris</i>	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Funeral Tributes to Wm. Lloyd Garrison.....	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 75
Granville (J. M.), <i>Common Mind Troubles</i>	(S. E. Cassino)
Harley (J. M.), <i>Cora Lynn: a Tale</i>	(Robert J. Hayward & Co.) 50
Jameson (H. W.), <i>Rhetorical Method</i>	(G. I. Jones & Co.) 75
Kip (L.), <i>Under the Bells: a Tale</i>	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
McCulloch (H.), <i>Bi-Metallism, swd.</i>	(S. E. Cassino) 25
Oiney's Practical Arithmetic.....	(Sheldon & Co.)
Potter (E. B.), <i>French Settlements in the Colony of Rhode Island, swd.</i>	(S. S. Rider)
Radcliffe (Dr. C. B.), <i>Proteus; or, Unity in Nature, 2d ed.</i>	(Macmillan & Co.)
Ruth Erskine's Crosses.....	(D. Lothrop & Co.) 1 50
Savage (J.), <i>Picturesque Ireland, Part 6, swd.</i>	(Thomas Kelly) 50
Tardieu (J.), <i>Money: a Tale, swd.</i>	(D. Appleton & Co.) 25
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Total amount of Marine Premiums.....\$5,858,006 83

No Policies have been issued upon Life Risks, nor upon
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Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1878, to 31st
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Premium Notes and Bills receivable.....1,529,259 74
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Total Amount of Assets.....\$13,320,463 16

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